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The identification of teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach.

Peter T. Wilson
University of Massachusetts Amherst

THE IDENTIFICATION OF TEACHER COMPETENCIES CENTRAL TO WORKING IN AN INTEGRATED DAY APPROACH

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By

PETER T. WILSON

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Approved as to style and content by:

Richard J. Clark Jr.
Chairman of Committee

Earl Seidman
Head of Department

Masha Rudman
Member

R. Mason Barker
Member

Robert L. Sinclair
Member

October 1972

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PETER T. WILSON

B. A. - Colgate University - New York

Directed by: Dr. Richard J. Clark

ABSTRACT

This study identifies teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach to elementary education. In so doing it serves to increase our understanding of a badly neglected area within this approach namely, the role of the teacher. It extends the study upon which it is built (Walberg and Thomas, 1971) by providing detail and synthesis based upon an explicit definition of teacher comptency. This contributes to further research by making available identified competencies which can then be employed to (1) determine their presence or absence in integrated day classrooms, and (2) determine specific learning outcomes where these competencies are present. For practitioners, the identified competencies, as a statement of what an integrated day teacher is and does, provide guidelines for both preservice and inservice training programs.

Chapter I discusses the integrated day - open education movement and general problems requiring further research. Chapter II defines teacher competency as "knowledge, attitudes, skills and self-perceptions, or the

products that derive from the mix of these behaviors resulting in consistent patterns of behavior leading to the attainment of predicted outcomes." There follows an analysis of five studies by American open educators (Barth, Rathbone, Bussis and Chittenden, Walberg and Thomas, and Evans). Based upon this analysis, a framework which includes seven themes and their defining characteristics is established for identifying teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. Provision is also made for the inclusion of findings from empirical research, undertaken outside of the context of the integrated approach, in the final statement of teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. Chapter II concludes with an explication of Comb's concept of the 'self-as-instrument' and how it complements this study. Chapter III contains an explicit and comprehensive statement of teacher competencies in seven areas central to working in an integrated day approach: Self-Perception of the Teacher; Seeking Opportunity to Promote Growth; Humaneness - Respect, Openness, and Warmth; Instruction - Guidance and Extension of Learning; Provisioning for Learning; Diagnosis of Learning Evens; and, Evaluation of Diagnostic Information. Chapter IV includes a summary and implications both for further research and for practitioners in the field. A bibliography and Appendix are appended.

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To: Bob — For getting me off on the right track and keeping me on it.

Dick — For keeping me going.

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Mason — For an outside perspective.

Pun — For 'leading from behind' with patience and love.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Integrated Day Movement and Our Educational System

Criticism of our educational system emerges from virtually every sector of society. Our need is hardly for more criticism; rather, having seen the inadequacy of our educational institutions, it behooves us to strive for significant change. Reflecting on de Tocqueville's instruction that "what we call necessary institutions are often no more than institutions to which we have grown accustomed." Charles Silberman, in his recent study of American education, argues for the possibility of a radical transformation of our schools.

> The "necessity" that makes schooling so uniform over time and across cultures is simply the "necessity" that stems from unexamined assumptions and unquestioned behavior. . . Schools can be humane and still educate well. They can be genuinely concerned with gaiety and joy and individual growth and fulfillment without sacrificing concern for intellectual discipline and development. They can be simultaneously child-centered and subject or knowledge-centered. They can stress esthetic and moral education without weakening the three R's. They can do all these things if - but only if - their structure, content, and objectives are transformed (Silberman, 1970, pp. 207-208).

To bring about such a transformation of structure, content and objectives at the elementary level, Silberman looks to the change in the English primary

schools over the past thirty years as the direction our schools must take. This transformation of English primary education, frequently labeled the "integrated day" approach,[1] has entailed a profound change in goals as well as in the means of attaining them.

At this juncture, a brief description of what an observer might see when in an integrated day school will serve to add an immediacy to the context of this discussion.

The teacher's role is primarily one of strategic intervention within the context of the rich environment he carefully maintains.[2] Unlike many traditional classrooms, his interactions with the children are dominated by questions of a substantive nature (Resnick, 1971, p. 7). A highly complex structure is maintained which allows the teacher to respond to individuals in terms of how much direction and of what type they need. It means that a child can experience a variety of structures mindful of the idea that he will be continually moving towards a greater degree of autonomy, including the increased intellectual and social responsibility which that must imply.

With the provision of a stimulating environment, full of manipulative materials, children are actively engaged in their learning in a classroom which

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[1]It has also been variously labeled open education, informal education, British primary model, English primary model.

[2]Henceforth the teacher will be represented by the pronouns he, his, him to indicate the universal. The writer recognizes that most teachers in elementary schools are women, but hopes that in the future this disproportionate situation will change.

is designed to allow for a variety of learning styles and levels of activity. Materials are generally allocated to individuals or small groups. Groups form and dissolve on a variety of bases, including skills, interest and friendships. There are few if any bells. Children work through to the end of a piece of work and then move on to something else. There is rarely any single syllabus directing the teacher's work, or, therefore, the child's. In planning for the next step, teachers seize upon interests of the children and aspects of their on-going work. Curriculum guides are used, but rarely sequentially; they are used, as are other sources, as a general resource. Much use is made of work cards, particularly teacher made, open-ended ones. Teachers selectively keep pieces of each child's work as part of the child's record. They also keep thorough anecdotal records. In the integrated approach much of a child's work is self-initiated (although the stimulus for this initiation is usually some aspect of the carefully planned learning environment). Work usually is free from the constraints of compartmentalization - even in team teaching situations. Children naturally extend their work through several subject areas. Projects are a common form of work, often with different children contributing to various parts of a project. The children's work is carefully displayed when completed. This reinforces the worth of the work in the child's eyes and provides an important source of ideas for others.

The appropriateness of the "integrated day" as an alternative to the inadequacies of our present schools derives from several factors. First, it

has strong roots in the distant past of American education with several contemporary efforts being made to nourish a hybrid of those past roots with the characteristics of English primary schools. Secondly, it speaks to the very inadequacies that have been identified in our own schools by the recent Silberman study.[3] Thirdly, it is an already on-going, viable program. The viability of the integrated day is attested to by the fact that it has affected more than a third of England's primary schools. Its roots are embedded in the works of John Dewey and the progressive movement, while present efforts in the United States go back to the early sixties. For several years prior to the publication of Silberman's Crisis in the Classroom a number of educators in different parts of the United States had been working towards an integrated day approach. Significant projects are under way in Tuscon, Philadelphia, North Dakota, Illinois, New York, and New England. Since the publication of Silberman's report several more leading educators and state departments of education have made public commitments to move their school systems in this direction.

The Problem

There is a growing movement towards the integrated day approach - and herein lies a two-fold problem which we must address. First, as Silberman

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[3]Silberman's study has had wide circulation with not a little impact as indicated below. Probably the greatest strength of his study is the analysis of the ills of American education. This is a central point in a generally critical review by Amitai Etzione. He says of Silberman's study, "the definition of the problem is by far the best part of the work." (Etzione, p. 89)

has noted, the integrated day involves a greatly increased degree of complexity in classroom structures and roles, including a significantly greater dimension of responsiveness on the part of the teacher.[4] This greater complexity calls for many new teacher competencies, not in place of, but in addition to traditional teacher competencies. Gardner and Cass, who have undertaken the only in-depth study of the role of the teacher in the integrated day write, "Every fresh development in Infant School Education seems to require additions to the equipment of a good teacher, but never the discarding of the qualities that made a really good teacher of the older methods," (Gardner and Cass, 1965, p. 2).

The second aspect of the problem stems from the fact that the integrated day approach is indeed an approach, not a model. It depends very much upon the specific efforts of the individual teacher. In fact, many of those who have been active thus far in the integrated day movement have tended to see this approach as so highly individual as to preclude systematic efforts in teacher education. While not at all denying that artistry and intuition are undoubtedly very much at the heart of such teaching, it is nevertheless argued here that there are central, identifiable competencies that, when identified, will greatly facilitate teacher education efforts to move our schools towards an integrated day approach. This two-fold problem of complexity and idiosyncracy represents

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[4] For an extended discussion of this factor of "complexity" see Chapter IV.

a formidable challenge to those educators interested in moving our schools towards an integrated day. In fact, if teacher educators, including administrators and curriculum advisors, are to have any impact on this movement, then it is essential that we do, in fact, identify those competencies central to working in an integrated day approach.

There is some irony in the fact that so little attention has been given to the role of the teacher in the vast literature on the integrated day. Most integrated day educators would applaud Carl Rogers when he asserts, "Better courses, better curricula, better coverage, better teaching machines, will never resolve our dilemma in a basic way. Only persons acting like persons in their relationships with their students can begin to make a dent in this most urgent problem of modern education," (Rogers, 1969, p. 125). The teacher is, must be, as much at the heart of the educational process as the student. And yet, there is a definite lack of focus in integrated day literature on the teacher. Gardner and Cass provide an interesting explanation of this phenomenon.

> When visiting the classrooms of good teachers one is always struck by their tendency to stand back and let the children's work be seen. The visitor will be told of the ideas suggested by the children, and success achieved by one or another child will be pointed out. Nothing will be said of their share in bringing about a situation in which the child's ideas were accepted and used and their achievements encouraged and helped. This tendency, while it is very commendable as evidence of a teacher's unselfish interest in her pupils, sometimes misleads the inexperienced visitor who imagines that mere provision of materials and opportunities for the children have been all that was required. This preoccupation of good teachers

> with the children rather than themselves may explain why, when asked by research workers what they think their most important function to be, their answers reveal only a very small part of what they actually do, (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 21).

Thus, a major educational alternative presents itself, but part of its essence remains hidden, buried in its own complexity and idiosyncracy, and is further obfuscated by the humility of its practioners who have unwittingly removed the essence from the focal point of examination.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to identify teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. A set of competencies is herein identified for each of seven themes: self-perception of teacher; seeking opportunity to promote growth; humaneness - respect, openness and warmth; instruction - guidance and extension of learning; provisioning for learning; diagnosis of learning events; and evaluation of diagnostic information. The statement of competencies includes the defining characteristics of each theme.[5] The patterns of behavior comprising a competency includes not only skills but also the attitudes, knowledge and self-perceptions which inform behavior. For example, diagnosis is seen to comprise not only diagnostic skills, such as administering an informal reading or math inventory, but also a knowledge base, an attitude in which

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[5]These themes and their defining characteristics are taken from Appendix "D" of Walberg and Thomas' study, Open Education: toward an operational definition, (1971). Their study is discussed at length in Chapter II.

diagnosis is seen as an on-going activity essential to growth, and a perception of the child which includes him as a necessary recipient of the diagnostic information. Where possible competencies are identified in terms of observable behaviors, but it must be stressed that observable behaviors are only part of a gestalt that includes perceptions, attitudes and knowledge.

By so identifying teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach, this study serves to increase our understanding of a badly neglected area within the integrated day approach, namely, the role of the teacher. It extends the study upon which it has built (Walberg and Thomas, 1971) by providing detail and synthesis based upon an explicit definition of teacher competency. This contributes to further research by making available identified competencies which can then be employed to (1) determine their presence or absence in actual classrooms, and (2) determine specific learning outcomes where these competencies are present. For practioners, the identified competencies provides guidelines for both pre-service and in-service training programs.

Approach

Several steps are taken to achieve the study's purpose. A theoretical approach is developed which includes a definition of teacher competency as well as a means of identifying these competencies. The latter involves the delineation of a framework within which teacher competencies are to be identified. This

framework is then used as a screen in reviewing the literature on the integrated day for both stated and implied teacher competencies. Thus, the formulation of teacher competencies involves a review of the literature as outlined above plus a statement of teacher competencies based upon the review of the literature with further delineation of those competencies supported by findings from empirical research.

Chapter II, Theoretical Background," includes four sections. The first develops a definition of teacher competence. In the second, an analysis of five studies conceptualizing the integrated day approach leads to an operational definition of integrated day. The third section comprises the design of the main portion of this study, namely, the identification of teacher competencies. The fourth section examines Comb's concept of the 'self-as-instrument'.

Chapter III is an explicit and comprehensive statement of teacher competencies in seven areas central to working in an integrated day approach: self-perception, seeking, humaneness, instruction, provisioning, diagnosis and evaluation. Chapter IV contains a summary and suggests implications both for further research and for practioners in the field.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter we (1) establish a definition of teacher competency, (2) analyze five conceptualizations of the integrated day approach in order to establish an operational definition of integrated day, (3) outline in detail our design for identifying teacher competencies, and (4) examine Combs' concept of the 'self-as-instrument' for its implications for this study.

Teacher Competency

For this study teacher competency is defined as "knowledge, attitudes, skills and self-perceptions, or the products that derive from the mix of these behaviors resulting in consistent patterns of behavior leading to the attainment of predicted outcomes." This definition draws upon the work of Combs and Dodl and Shalock. Dodl and Shalock, in their article "Competence-Based Teacher Preparation," defined competence in terms of learning outcomes, including "knowledge, skills, attitudes, feelings or the products that derive from the mix of these behaviors." We have substituted self-perceptions for feelings. This is congruent with the approach of the study upon which this present effort is based (Walberg and Thomas). Furthermore, the efficacy of the concept of self-

perception is supported by the research of A. W. Combs.

Dodl and Shalock also suggest that we must think in terms of "specific patterns of teacher behavior predicted to yield. . . long range outcome(s)" (Dodl and Shalock, draft, p. 29, emphasis added). By dealing with teacher competency within the context of the integrated day approach, the identified patterns of teacher behavior, i.e., competencies, will be assumed to yield the long range goals which base this approach. The identification of teacher competencies with reference to a specific approach to education represents an important delimitation of this study.

Finally, it should be pointed out that by defining competency in terms of consistent patterns of behavior further support is given to the inclusion of qualities beyond observable behavior in the definition of competence, such as knowledge, attitudes and self-perception. Behavior not founded upon supporting attitudes and self-perception must be superficial and inconsistent.

Teacher competency as defined above is a broad definition. A narrower definition, one more behavioristic in the sense of being assessable only by low-inference measures, would be incompatible with the objective of making explicit what teachers are and do in the integrated day approach. The relationships between teacher and child, between teacher and environment, between teacher and teacher, between child and environment and between child and child are too complex to be assessable only through such measures. It is recognized that in all his relationships, both with other beings and with the

environment, man complicates the situation in that he brings to it what many researchers refer to as "intervening variables."

The school situation involves not only the above relationships but also such complex phenomena as learning. Furthermore, three of the seven themes, self-perception, humaneness, and seeking within which we will identify teacher competencies involve similarly complex phenomena. Given this task a behaviorist approach which deals only with observable behavior and treats learning merely as a change in behavior is inadequate.[1] For our purposes, a more useful perspective must recognize the existence of "intervening variables." Such a perspective would view learning as "the development of insight" (Dunwell, 1966, p. 2) or as "the discovery of meaning" (Combs, Avila and Purkey, 1971, pp. 91-97). This perspective on learning is central to the work of Combs and Goding in the Florida Studies in the Helping Professions.

We have developed a broad definition of teacher competency in order to deal with the complexity of the integrated day approach. Our definition of competency encompasses not only observable behavior but also attitudes and self-perceptions. In so doing, it draws theoretical support from the work of

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[1]For references on behaviorists' treatment of learning see: Kendler, Howard H. Basic Psychology, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963, pp. 150-151. Edward J. Green, The Learning Process and Programmed Instruction, New York: Holt, Rinehart Co., 1962, p. 40. Englemean, Becker and Thomas, Teaching: A Course in Applied Psychology, Chicago: S. R. A. 1971, p. 1. Madsen and Madsen, Teaching/Discipline, Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971, p. 18. Ernest E. Bayles, Pragmatism in Education, New York: Harper and Row, 1965, pp. 23-30. Ernest R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning, New York: Appleton-Century- Crofts, 1956, pp. 2-3.

several others, namely, Dunwell, Gooding, and Combs, Avila and Purkey.

Narrow definitions of competency have frequently resulted in strong criticism of the competency approach. Combs, for example, criticized the competency approach equating it with the identification of teacher traits or characteristics (Combs, 1964, pp. 369-399). Nash suggests that the competency approach presupposes "mechanistic-positivistic assumptions." He goes on to argue that it forces us to "surrender. . . an epistemology which allows for the significance of non-cerebral, or non-intellective learning. Also, we have been asked to ignore or underplay that dimension of human behavior which is activated by one's value perceptions," (Nash, 1970, pp. 240-241). Unfortunately, up to now, many of the competency studies have merited these criticisms. We must now allow this narrow competency approach, with its accompanying weaknesses, to obscure the value of a broader competency approach. Indeed, the leading proponents of the concept of competency support a broader interpretation (Cooper and Weber, 1971; Shalock, 1971; Dodl and Shalock, draft; and Drummond, 1971). While much of the competency work to date has been too narrow for our purposes, a broader approach can serve as a useful vehicle for focusing on the teacher in the integrated day.

Teacher competency, as a way of looking at what it is that teachers do, are, and should be, has gained strong support from two groups of educators: those concerned with teacher preparation, and those concerned with certification. Their support has been partially stimulated by the press for accountability and

partially by the momentum of the behavioral objectives movement (Dodl & Shalock). Cooper and Weber further suggest that "Competency-based teacher education programs provide excellent opportunities for conducting process-product research, that is, research that attempts to relate observed teacher behaviors to student outcome measures" (see also, Rosenshine and Furst 1971). These forces for accountability, behavioral objectives and process-product research all press for a dimension of competency to which we must now turn.

Dodl and Shalock argue that "the ability to bring about specified classes of learning outcomes in pupils must also be considered as one of the bases upon which competence to teach will be determined. In a broader sense, this type of criterion for the assessment of competence can be seen as 'product-based'" (draft). The case for "product-based" assessment is argued even more forcefully, again by Shalock, in Burdin and Reagan's (eds.) Performance-Based Certification of School Personnel (1971). Here Shalock argues for a "product-based" approach for both certification and teacher accountability. Without getting bogged down in the quagmire of issues both practical and philosophical, which surround the "product-based" concept, we can make it explicit that we are not defining teacher competency in terms of learner outcomes. A clear and comprehensive statement of learner outcomes is not available at this time for any integrated day program. In fact, if one were available it is not at all certain that, for us, it would serve any useful purpose. As Shalock points out (p. 29), a product-based, competency approach assumes very specific short

term instructional goals if any assessment is going to be undertaken. But short range goals are quite situational to say the least. On the other hand, long range goals, while perhaps more easily arrived at in their statement and acceptable to a broader spectrum of individuals, render product criterion impractical. Shalock recognizes this dilemma. He suggests that in order to deal with long term goals on a product criterion base, we must look to "specific patterns of teacher behavior predicted to yield the long range outcome," (1971, emphasis added, p. 29). However, this still assumes a set of long range goals.

As stated above (p. 10) "By dealing with teacher competency within the confines of the integrated day approach, the identified patterns of behavior, i.e., competencies, will be assumed to yield the long range goals which base this approach." This implies that there is a set of identifiable goals within the integrated day approach. This needs clarification. Barth (1970), through a thorough review of the literature, identified the major assumptions underlying the integrated day approach. This study, plus the list of characteristics defining open education in the Walberg and Thomas study, contains an implicit statement of the goals which base this approach. Important here is the distinction between the fact that there are goals basing this approach and the need for a clear articulation of them. The need for a statement of goals underlying this approach is great. It will be an essential step if research is to be continued. In fact, such an effort would complement this study in a most efficacious manner. Unfortunately, to undertake such a statement in conjunction with this study would

have been too ambitious. Thus, while recognizing the need for a clear articulation of the goals of the integrated day approach, and while identifying the importance of such a statement of goals for the extension of this study, for our present purposes, the identification of teacher competencies within a discrete, identifiable approach to education, i.e., the integrated day (Evans, 1971) is assumed to be a valid undertaking.

Earlier, in stating the problem within which we have identified a specific area on which to focus, it was suggested that the integrated day is characterized by complexity and idiosyncracy. Given this, we will employ a broad competency approach in this study in order to clear the "muddy waters" of complexity without impinging upon the vitality derived from idiosyncracy. A narrower competency approach could achieve neither. A listing of characteristics does little or nothing to clear the waters. It might tell us what is in them, but it could do little to suggest the inter-relationships of the elements, or illuminate the subtleties of timing, perspective, and balance in which they interact. Besides, a narrow listing would lend no perspective to individuality. This must come from a more comprehensive view. There are only differences when distinct features are seen in relationship to each other. Thus, as stated above, by defining competency in terms of consistent patterns of behavior further support is given to the inclusion of qualities beyond observable behavior in the definition of competence, such as, knowledge, attitudes and self-perception. Bernice Wolfson writes:

> There are a million decisions to be made (by the teacher) which do not allow for reflection. Many of these decisions are not reflected upon, but. . . are related to her previous reflections, to her values, and to her feelings and attitudes. All these are part of the total context of the interaction, (Howes, Virgil M., p. 113).

Conceptualization of the integrated day is critical to identifying and stating comprehensively teacher competencies central to working in this approach, and as such, the validity of the conceptualization is of critical importance. Fortunately much work has been done toward this end. In addition, we will be able to support the conceptual work, which has already been undertaken by integrated day educators, with empirical research available from efforts in other areas. Let us then move to an examination of the conceptualization of the integrated day approach.

Conceptualization of the Integrated Day Approach

Several recent studies (Barth, 1970; Rathbone, 1970a and 1970b; Bussis and Chittenden, 1970; Walberg and Thomas, 1971; and Evans, 1971) provide a theoretical basis for this dissertation. Barth's and Rathbone's doctoral dissertations identify the assumptions underlying open education (the integrated day). They further examine the implications of these assumptions for the role of the teachers and principal (Barth) and for teacher education (Rathbone). Concurrent with the work of Barth and Rathbone, Bussis and Chittenden in their

evaluation of the EDC Open Education Follow Through Model,[2] developed a ten theme conceptualization of open education. This work was in turn extended by Walberg and Thomas, also in conjunction with EDC. Evans, having coordinated the above research for EDC, culminated these efforts by empirically testing the instruments included in Walberg and Thomas' work. In this chapter we will examine these studies and their implications for our present effort. We will also, in a separate section, look at the 'self as instrument' concept developed by Combs, et al., to determine its possible usefulness, in conjunction with the above conceptualizations of the integrated day, in furthering our statement of teacher competencies. But first, we will return to examine several efforts to conceptualize open education, or the integrated day approach.

Barth identifies twenty-nine assumptions (with supporting quotations from the literature) about learning, knowledge and children.[3] He then attempts "to construct a role of the teacher which is logically and feasibly consistent with these beliefs. The role suggested here will be theoretical, hypothetical, and characterize as much the author's thinking as the behavior of any particular teacher or teachers," (Barth, 1970, fn. 66).

Barth makes significant contributions both in his identification of assumptions and in his explication of the role of the teacher. The identified

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[2]EDC is Educational Development Center, 55 Chapel St., Newton, Mass.

[3]See Appendix A for the complete list of assumptions identified by Barth.

assumptions comprise an exhaustive and well documented list. And, as Barth proposed, the discussion of the role of the teacher builds directly upon the identified assumptions. From the two, the reader is able to gain an understanding not only of what comprises open education but also of the bases for the approach as well. The focus of Barth's dissertation is open education and reflects Bussis and Chittenden's appraisal of the literature: "most publications British as well as American, tend to give considerable attention to the children in open settings but are vague on how and where the teacher fits into the scheme," (Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 21). Even in his chapter on "The Role of the Teacher in the Open School," Barth never really leaves his earlier foci on children's learning and the nature of knowledge. In discussing the role of the teacher Barth only draws very broad implications concerning the teacher. His is a useful discussion of the role of the teacher, but there remains a need for a thorough analysis of what the teacher is and does.

Rathbone's work, while focusing on the "Implications of the So-Called 'Leicestershire' Innovation for the Education of Teachers", is in many respects quite similar to Barth's. Like Barth, Rathbone first examines the assumptions (he calls them ideologies), of open education. He examines its epistemology, the nature of learning, and the relationships between learner, teacher and materials. There is a particularly incisive discussion of the concept of agency which later becomes the organizing concept for his discussion of teacher education.

Moving to "Considerations for Teacher Education," Rathbone has two aims. First, he proposes to develop support for the underlying assumption of most current efforts to educate for open education. It is assumed that the most efficacious means of getting teachers to come "to grips with the central question, 'What does it mean to treat another human being as an agent in his own learning?'" is to "provide for the teachers themselves an Open Education experience," (Rathbone, 1970b, p. 26).[4] His second aim is "to develop some idea of what such an Open Education experience might include, not in terms of a concrete curriculum for teachers, but in terms of a number of second level goals," (p. 26). Rathbone talks about teacher roles and competencies, but his emphasis is on how to change teachers (people). There is a useful articulation of many of the assumptions common to current integrated day teacher education efforts. Unfortunately, what it is that teachers are preparing for or changing to is left at a general level. Essential competencies of an integrated day teacher are not dealt with in any depth.

Rathbone focuses mostly on assumptions about learning and growing. He discusses at length the kind of experiences the learner ought to have and how he ought to have them; these are not always clearly distinguished so that we

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[4]References from Rathbone dealing with teacher education are taken from his Special Qualifying Paper which formed the main part of his final dissertation and was more available than the dissertation itself which was on closed reserve.

must conclude, a la McLuhan, that the medium is the message. Actually Rathbone refers to Grannis' essay "The School as a Model of Society" which asserts that the medium is certainly a part of the message, but that is an important distinction.

Quite central to Rathbone's thesis is the assumption that we can deal with the kinds of experiences the learner should have and that this is appropriate whether the learner is seven, nine or adult. He outlines three major objectives of a teacher education program; it must (1) "place its participants in a position where they can experience being agent" (1970b, p. 30), (2) "after helping participants to assume the role of agent. . . help them to the explicit articulation of this role" (p. 35), and (3) "assist the teachers in gaining some experience at treating someone else as an agent" (p. 35). This third objective, treating others as agents, requires several competencies related to being a resource to others. Rathbone includes non-directiveness, being non-judgmental or non-evaluative, having a high-tolerance of a child's right to make an error, having confidence in one's own resources, observation, diagnostic and record-keeping skills, and an understanding of and appreciation for what Hawkins has described as the "I-Thou-It" relationship and the "Messing About Phenomena" (Hawkins, in Rathbone (ed.), 1971, pp. 58-70, 83-99).

Justification for dealing with questions related to the education of teachers (or children) mainly in terms of the kinds of experiences the learners should have, instead of why he should have a particular experience, has been

perhaps best expressed by Elliot Eisner.

> Expressive objectives differ considerably from instructional objectives. An expressive objective does not specify the behavior the student is to acquire after having engaged in one or more learning activities. An expressive object describes an educational encounter: It identifies a situation in which children are to work, a problem with which they are to cope, a task in which they are to engage; but it does not specify what from that encounter, situation, problem, or task they are to learn. An expressive objective provides both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore, defer, or focus on issues that are of peculiar interest or import to the inquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive, (1969, pp. 15-16).

Open educators frequently argue that it is not the particular content of an experience that is important but the quality of the experience. Bussis and Chittenden said of the Educational Development Center's advisory that "it is much more concerned with the expressive objective as a statement of educational encounter, than with the instructional objective as a statement of educational outcome." They go on to say, "We would also agree with Eisner that the question of whether or not to state objectives in behavioral terms is more than just a question of taste or technique." "The differences between individuals regarding the nature and the use of educational objectives spring from differences in their conception of education; under the rug of technique lies an image of man" (Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 9, 10).

Most of the literature on the integrated day deals with educational encounter. It seems as though the proponents of integrated day, because they

see much of the teacher's role as providing for educational encounters, confuse this with their own efforts as conceptualizing the role of the teacher. It is as though through fear of being prescriptive they find they can only be evocative. But, the analogy (between Eisner's analysis of expressive versus instructional objectives and open educators' view of the teachers role and an analysis of that role) should not fit. Analyzing the role of the teacher is not the same as preparing to teach a group of learners. We deal with preparation to teach somethings in terms of seeing it as an educational encounter because we do not want to limit the encounter, because we respect what the learner brings to the encounter, because in many ways process is as important as product. But, analysis of what teachers do and are is not analogous. An analysis, however thorough, is not necessarily prescriptive; it is not the same as a statement of objectives.

It was argued in our earlier discussion concerning the problem of dealing with complex phenomena and the recognition of "intervening variables" that a narrow behaviorist approach was inadequate. From there we went on to develop the case for a broad competency approach, encompassing not only observable behavior but also attitudes and self-perceptions. By employing this framework in our analysis we hope to be able to deal with the complexities and subleties of open education. In essence, what we are doing is recognizing our "image of man" and attempting to approach the study of that man, in the educational context, in a way which does justice to that image.

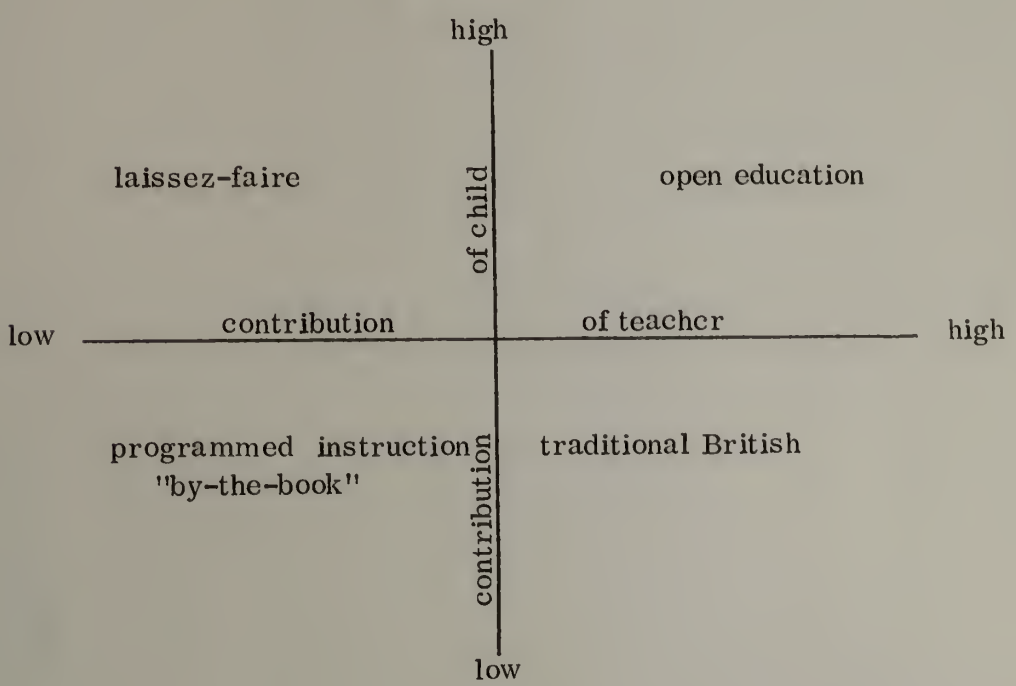
The phenomena of open educators tending to be evocative for fear of being prescriptive is exacerbated by the previously mentioned tendency of open educators to be child-centered, that is to see everything through the child's eyes, certainly a narrow perspective. It is in wrestling with this problem that Bussis and Chittenden make a distinguished contribution to open education. As heads of an evaluation team from Education Testing Service (ETS) they were funded, in conjunction with EDC, to evaluate its Open Education Follow Through Model. Given the nature of the EDC model and the paucity of assessment procedures available, ETS had two major concerns:

> One was the problem of developing assessment procedures which are better suited to the more humanistic, but less tangible goals of education in general. . . A second concern stemmed from the fact that approaches to early education which have come to be labeled 'open' seem particularly vulnerable to misunderstanding and elusive to evaluation efforts. The need for clearer conceptualization of the objectives of such programs is critical, both for better communication of their essential components and for more meaningful evaluation of their outcomes (Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 2).

They were concerned that the gap which so often persists between research and practice, and between researcher and practitioner should be bridged. Their first priority was the development of a conceptual framework. To do this they followed Zimiles' (1968) advice, that "the evaluation worker should become 'saturated' with the life of the program he is studying in order to understand the goal of the educator" (in Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 4). As they

immersed themselves in EDC classrooms and in talks with EDC advisors, it soon became obvious that the common continuum on which classrooms are so often placed, from child-centered to adult-centered, did not fit the EDC classrooms: "good EDC classrooms bring active adults together with active children" (p. 21). It became apparent "that child-centeredness, and adult-centeredness might be viewed as independent dimensions in the classroom rather than as opposite ends of a single scale" (p. 22). They therefore juxtaposed the child's and the teacher's contributions to the learning environment, creating a two-dimensional conceptualization which is represented below:

Figure 1



(Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 22)

This two-dimensional paradigm represents an important step toward a viable conceptualization of the integrated day. This is particularly true in light of the previously noted imbalance towards child-centeredness in discussions of the integrated day literature. It is also interesting to note that in their first year of study Bussis and Chittenden found that:

> the easiest and most natural change toward an open classroom occurs in a vertical direction - in changing ideas about the capabilities of children and the freedom they can manage. . . By comparison change in the horizontal direction seems to be considerably more difficult for many teachers. It requires abandoning the passive role of enacting a program in favor of taking part in creating an instructional approach. For many American elementary school teachers this can require a shift from subprofessional status and self image to a more professional view of her role (p. 27).

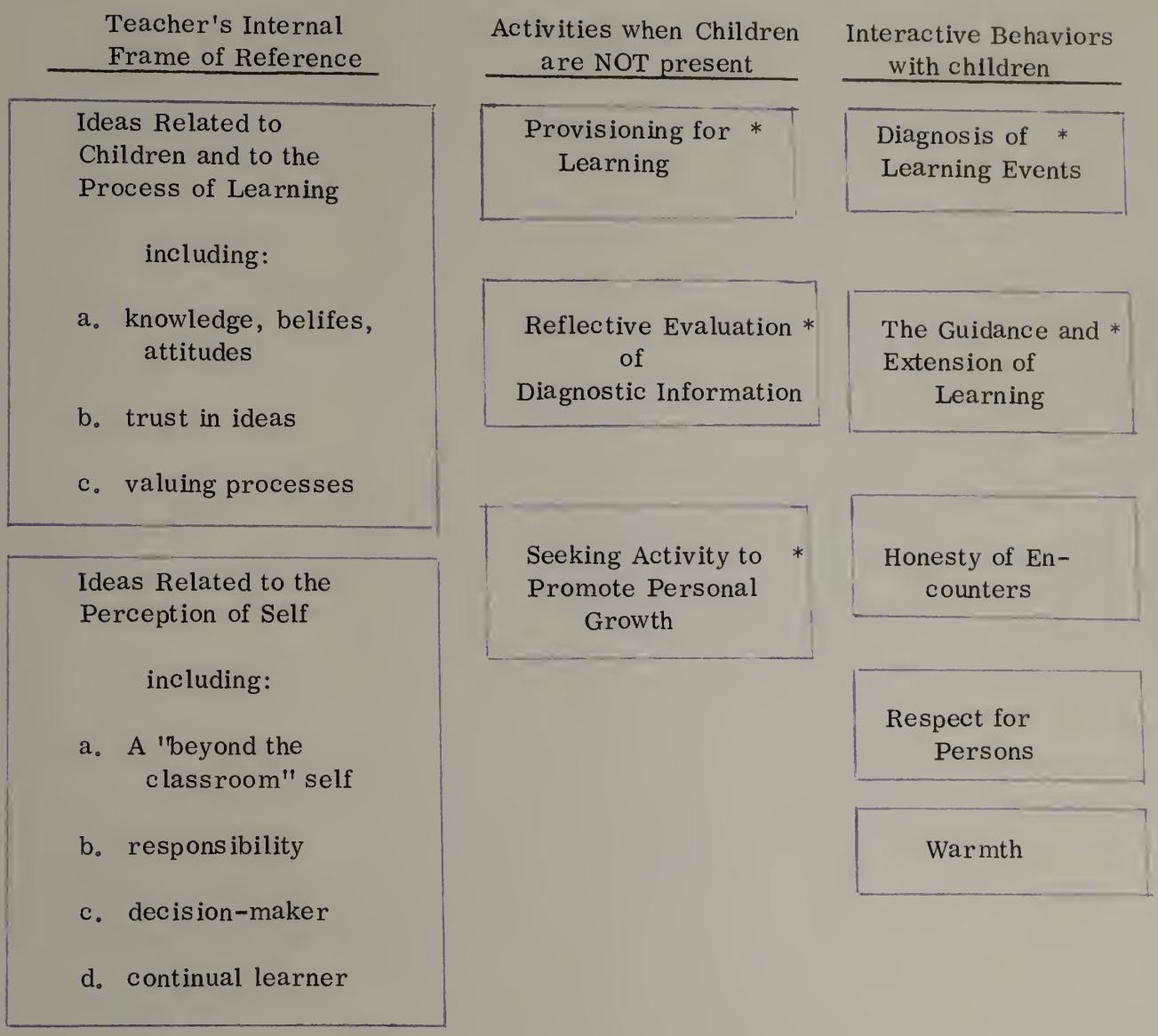
We have previously seen from our own analysis of important works on open education (Barth, 1970; Rathbone, 1970), as well as from Bussis and Chittenden's appraisal of the literature, that an imbalance exists in viewing the open classroom mainly in terms of the learner - even when the role of the teacher is supposedly being addressed. Bearing this in mind and considering Bussis and Chittenden's finding that teachers moving toward an integrated day approach tend to do so by changing their perception of the child yet finding it difficult to change perceptions of their own role, we have further reason to pursue a more thorough analysis of the teacher's role. In pursuit of this goal we must continue to examine the development of the conceptualization of the integrated day approach. For Bussis and Chittenden the two-dimensional

paradigm was only a first step. From the literature, from their observations of EDC classrooms, and from interviews with both EDC teachers and advisors they derived, along the two dimensions (child's contribution and teacher's contribution) a set of ten behaviors which they postulate as defining characteristics of the "Open Teacher." The ten behaviors are divided into three categories, teacher's internal frame of reference, activities when children are NOT present, and interactive behaviors with children. They further identify five of these behaviors which relate to the horizontal dimensions and five which would relate to a teacher's growth on the vertical dimension. (See Figure 2) They augment this with a brief but insightful discussion of eight of these behaviors. Unfortunately they do not discuss the two behaviors comprising the teachers internal frame of reference, ideas related to children and to the process of learning, and ideas related to the perception of self. This omission is particularly troublesome since we would have included the latter (perception of self) with those behaviors which relate to the horizontal dimension. Nevertheless, their conceptualization is of crucial importance to those interested in having a clearer picture of what the integrated day is all about and particularly of the role of the integrated day teacher.

Their work led to another major study, Walberg and Thomas' Open Education: Toward an Operational Definition, (1971) which was built directly upon the work of Bussis and Chittenden. "The Bussis-Chittenden framework, with certain reservation, elaborations, and implications drawn from our own

Figure 2

Analysis of Behaviors Tentatively Proposed as Defining Characteristics of the "Open Teacher"



*Components of behavior which are hypothesized to define the horizontal dimension of Figure 1. See text for further explanation.

Reproduces by permission from Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 31.

thinking and observations from reading open education writings, appeared to be a constructive starting point for content analysis and instrument development" (Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. 11). They refined the defining themes, combining in one case three separate themes into one, and regrouped the themes.

More specifically, Walberg and Thomas found that categorizing the themes of "provisioning for learning," "reflective evaluation of diagnostic information," and "seeking activities to promote continuing personal growth" as behaviors which occur "outside the context of interaction with the children" was neither useful nor appropriate. They therefore did away with that category as an unnecessary division of the behaviors (Walberg and Thomas, 1971, pp. 12-14). They furthermore decided not to separate the themes dealing with the teacher's internal frame of reference from those dealing with easily observable teacher behaviors. They recognized the difference but felt that it did not call for separate analysis, only for a different approach to obtaining data (1971, p. 15). Further, Walberg and Thomas undertook an extensive content-analysis of open education literature, both to test the usefulness of their eight themes and to further refine them. Finally, they asked forty leading open educators to judge their own concepts of open education against the eight themes and their defining characteristics. The "fit" was remarkably high:

> 86.7% of the experts who rated the list of characteristics agreed on forty-two characteristics as being very important for Open Education. Eighty-one of the statements were marked as very important by 66.6% of those rating the list of 106 characteristics (Walberg and Thomas, p. 61).

On the basis of the responses by this group of open educators, Walberg and Thomas developed a revised list of characteristics. The revised list is being employed in this present study.

Although the Walberg and Thomas study follows directly from the work of Bussis and Chittenden there are some subtle shifts in the focus. Bussis and Chittenden, as noted above, made an important contribution by bringing the teacher into equal focus with the child, thus somewhat arresting the tendency of open educators to think from a narrow child-centered perspective. Their ten themes were selected as defining characteristics of the open teacher. In the Walberg and Thomas study there is a subtle shift from the teacher to the classroom. The themes are organized for an analysis of characteristics of the open education teacher, but the results of the content analysis of the literature takes the form of a "Preliminary List of Open Education characteristics." After review of the preliminary list by open educators, Walberg and Thomas develop the "Revised list of open education characteristics." From these they developed a "Classroom Observation Rating Scale" (to be discussed later) which is a measurement of the open-ness of a classroom not of a teacher. This is important in light of Bussis and Chittenden's finding that classrooms in which the teacher had moved vertically on their paradigm - that is toward active child contribution - were more obviously open then were classrooms where teachers had made the more difficult move toward active teacher contribution (Bussis and Chittenden, p. 26). And, it must be emphasized that movement in

both directions is necessary for a fully developed open classroom. It should be noted, however, that since Walberg's & Thomas' study was based primarily upon a content-analysis of the literature, it is not at all surprising that their focus did not remain on the teacher since, as we have already pointed out, the teacher is rather neglected in the literature. One further observation is necessary. The Walberg and Thomas study had as its purpose something very different from our own. They contracted to develop instruments which would differentiate open from traditional classrooms, and to develop a list of themes with defining characteristics which a teacher could either use to explore what open education is, or as a self-assessment of how his own classroom ranked against an operationalized definition of open education.

Our purpose is vastly different. We want to make a clear statement about the teacher who is working in an integrated day approach, more specifically, about the teacher competencies central to working in the integrated day approach. Hopefully these will be rather comprehensive statements with thorough explications of what the teacher is and does within any one theme. The validity of Walberg and Thomas' eight themes, and their defining characteristics comprising an operational definition of open education, was further strengthened in a study by Evans (1971). Evans, using the Classroom Observation Rating Scale and the Teacher Questionnaire which had been developed as part of the Walberg and Thomas study and which were based on the eight themes and their defining characteristics, was able to show that open education classrooms in

both Britain and the United States were significantly different from United States traditional classrooms at a .01 level of significance.

The 50 items on the Classroom Observation Rating Scale (the Teacher Questionnaire is virtually the same, but is reworded as a teacher interview) were taken from the 106 items on the Revised List of Open Education Characteristics. Half of the 50 items were from the provisioning theme. The other half were from the other seven themes. But, "for this [Evans'] study, the total score based upon all eight themes was used" (Evans, p. 7). Thus, not only are the eight themes and their defining characteristics congruent with the thinking of a large sample of leading open educators, but the themes are also operational in that they are capable of distinguishing open from traditional classrooms.

Integrated day as defined by Walberg and Thomas, using eight themes each with defining characteristics, will henceforth be employed as the operational definition of integrated day in this study. The themes, in abbreviated form, are as follows (Walberg and Thomas, Appendix B, p. 8):

> Provisioning for learning. The teacher provides a rich and responsive physical and emotional environment.
>
> Diagnosis of learning events. The teacher views the work children do in school as opportunities for her to assess what the children are learning, as much as opportunities for children to learn.
>
> Instruction - guidance and extension of learning. The teacher acts primarily as a resource person who, in a variety of ways, encourages and influences the direction and growth of learning.

Humaneness - respect and openness and warmth. The teacher promotes an atmosphere of warmth, openness, and respect for one another.

Reflective evaluation of diagnostic information. The teacher subjects her diagnostic observations to reflective evaluation in order to structure the learning environment adequately.

Seeking opportunity to promote growth. The teacher seeks activities outside the classroom to promote personal and professional growth.

Assumptions - ideas about children and the process of learning. The teacher's assumptions about children, the process of learning, and the goals of education are generally humanistic and wholistic. Teachers are aware of and respect the child's individuality and his capacity to direct his own learning.

Self-perception. The teacher is a secure person and a continuing learner.

Henceforth, these themes will be referred to as Provisioning, Diagnosis, Instruction, Humaneness, Evaluation, Seeking, Assumptions and Self-Perception.

Design of Study

By establishing an operational definition of the integrated day we have constructed the framework within which this study will unfold. We have also defined the key variable, competence, in the statement of purpose. Our next step must be to demonstrate how we expect to identify competencies central to

working in an integrated day approach.[5] There are two main sources of data available to us: one is practical knowledge; the other is empirical research. The first is available in the body of literature on the integrated day. A recent bibliography includes over 200 sources (Barth and Rathbone, 1971, annotated). Of these, Gardner's and Cass' The Role of the Teacher in the Infant and Nursery School, is the only one to deal exclusively, and in depth, with the role of the teacher. Its usefulness for this study is limited by the fact that it deals only with classrooms where the integrated day was confined to a single period per day.

Most of the literature on the integrated day falls into two main categories, general descriptive and focused. By far the larger number are subsumed under the first. Works by the following authors are representative of this "general descriptive" category: Cazden, Clegg, Cook and Mack, Featherstone, Gross and Gross, Holt, Hull, Kallet, Richardson, Schlesinger, Ulin, Yoemans, Blackie, Silberman, Webb, Marshall, Prescious and Brown, Marsh, Razell, Morrow and Morrow. The second category includes works with a narrower

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[5] For each of the eight themes there is a set of defining characteristics. Seven of these themes and their defining characteristics will constitute the area referred to in the Statement of Purpose as "central to working in an integrated day approach." One theme, "Assumptions" will be treated as part of each of the others, since it does in fact underlie all the others. The assumptions relate to children and their learning. In so doing they help define the context in which each of the other themes must be seen, although they do not in themselves constitute an area of teacher competency.

focus. These include the research studies cited above in the section, "Conceptualization of the Integrated Day Approach," as well as Gardner's other works. Brearley, Plowden, Peters, Piaget, Weber, Rogers (Carl), Dearden, Issacs (Susan), Issacs (Nathan), Dewey, and Montessori provide in-depth examinations of the foundations of the integrated day approach. There are also a large number of works focusing on specifie areas such as writing, mathe.maties, language, movement, science, and so on. But, in both the general descriptive literature and in the various works examining particular aspects of the integrated day, the teaeher as point of focus is passed over. This relates to two factors cited earlier: the quality of humility in teachers' self-perceptions, and the highly idiosyncratie nature of their role.

The second data souree available to us is empirical research. While there are very few empirieal research studies directly related to the integrated day, there is a body of research focusing on topics related to this study. These topies inelude the seven themes: provisioning, diagnosis, instruction, humaneness, evaluation, seeking and self-pereeption. Other relevant topics are teaeher eompetence and teaeher education. Having identified the data sources to be used, we must now explieate how they are to be employed. The seven category framework delineated above will be used as a screen in reviewing the body of practical knowledge available in the literature on the integrated day. At this initial stage of screening the hundred-odd defining characteristies will also be used in order to faeilitate the categorization of teacher competencies within each

of the seven themes. The result of this screening process should be a large body of teacher competencies categorized under the seven themes and further identifiable in terms of the defining characteristics of each theme. The next step involves a statement of teacher competencies within each of the seven themes based upon the review of the literature with further delineation of those competencies supported by findings from empirical research. This will result in a comprehensive statement of teacher competency in the areas of diagnosis, evaluation, humaneness, instruction, provisioning, seeking and self-perception.

The "Self as Instrument" concept

Having established the above seven category framework, we will now examine some work that has been done in the field of perceptual psychology, particularly as it has been applied to the helping professions. As will be seen, this work complements our own.

A series of studies undertaken by Combs, et al., at the University of Florida (The Florida Studies) have built upon the perceptual, phenomenological, or third force psychology of A. H. Maslow and C. L. Rogers. Combs delineates three basic principles of perceptual psychology: (1) behavior is a function of perception; (2) self-concept represents the most important single influence affecting an individual's behavior; and (3) the individual is engaged in a continuous striving for self-fulfillment, he has a basic need for personal adequacy (Combs, 1956, pp. 12-17).

Combs says, of the perceptual basis of behavior, that three factors act on an individual's behavior at any given moment, "(1) how he sees himself, (2) how he sees the situations in which he is involved, and (3) the interrelations of these two" (p. 12). One implication of these principles is that "behavior is only a symptom, the surface manifestation of what is going on within an individual" (p. 14). Thus, if we only concern ourselves with observable behaviors, then we are only treating the symptoms and neglecting the causes. One such cause is the need for personal adequacy. Combs elaborates, saying, "It is not the physical self each of us seeks to maintain, however. It is the self of which we are aware, our self-concepts, we seek fulfillment for" (p. 16). Relating directly to Maslow's work on motivation, this means that we do not have to motivate people. "Everyone is always motivated to be and become as adequate as he can be in the situation as he sees them" (p. 16). This implies that the teacher should be seeking for the student the goals the student has for himself. It also implies a teacher role of facilitator, helper, resource.

In examining the helping professions (nursing, the ministry, counseling, teaching, social work) Combs and his colleagues saw that these professions required more than a mechanistic application of methods. These professionals were much more than technicians. They saw that "the primary tool with which they work is themselves" (Combs, 1969, p. 10). This led to their describing the nature of the helping professions in terms of a "self as instrument" concept.

> Effective operation in the helping professions, whether we are talking about social work, counseling, teaching or nursing, is a question of the use of the helper's self, the peculiar way in which he is able to combine his knowledge and understanding with his own unique ways of putting it into operation in such a fashion as to be helpful to others (Combs, 1969, pp. 10-11).

Elsewhere, Combs has stated this in terms of the effective teacher. The effective teacher is "a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others" (Combs, 1965, p. 9).

Combs, et al., reasoned that effective helpers could be described in terms of their perceptual organizations, and that it would therefore be possible to distinguish effective helpers from ineffective helpers on the basis of their characteristic perceptual organizations (1969, p. 14). Several studies were made in different professions. C. Thomas Gooding's study of "The Perceptual Organization of Effective Teachers" is most relevant for our purposes.[6] Gooding identified two groups of teachers, one judged to be effective, the other to be ineffective, by both their principal and their curriculum coordinator.[7] Twenty

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[6]Reported by Combs, 1969, pp. 28-36; based upon "An Observational Analysis of the Perceptual Organizations of Effective Teachers" an unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1964.

[7]We realize that there may be methodological limitations inherent in Gooding's study resulting from the selection of effective and ineffective teachers on the basis of the congruent but subjective judgements of principals and curriculum supervisors. However, we are also aware, as Rosenshine and Furst (1971) suggest, that in spite of all the research on teacher effectiveness, we know very little; that a solid body of knowledge simply does not exist upon which to base educational decisions. It should be further noted that we recognize that Gooding's study was not undertaken within the specific context of an integrated day approach. In Chapter V we recommend that such a study be made.

perceptual hypotheses formed the basis of an observation schedule for trained observers. "The data from the inferences on observation yielded results which were significant at better than the .01 level of significance" (p. 32).

Gooding draws the following conclusions from his study (Combs, 1969, pp. 32-33):

> A statistically significant difference was demonstrated to exist between groups of effective and ineffective teachers on the basis of perceptual organization as inferred from observation of the teachers' classroom behavior.
>
> The effective group of teachers was characterized by perceptual organizations as follows:
>
> A. The general frame of reference of effective teachers tends to be one which emphasizes:
> 1. An internal rather than an external frame of reference.
> 2. Concern with people rather than things.
> 3. Concern with perceptual meanings rather than facts and events.
> 4. An immediate rather than a historical view of causes of behavior.
> B. Effective teachers tend to perceive other people and their behavior as:
> 1. Able rather than unable.
> 2. Friendly rather than unfriendly.
> 3. Worthy rather than unworthy.
> 4. Internally rather than externally motivated.
> 5. Dependable rather than undependable.
> 6. Helpful rather than hindering.
> C. Effective teachers tend to perceive themselves as:
> 1. With people rather than apart from people.
> 2. Able rather than unable.
> 3. Dependable rather than undependable.
> 4. Worthy rather than unworthy.
> 5. Wanted rather than unwanted.

D. Effective teachers tend to perceive the teaching task as:
   1. Freeing rather than controlling.
   2. Larger rather than smaller.
   3. Revealing rather than concealing.
   4. Involved rather than uninvolved.
   5. Encouraging process rather than achieving goals.

We can now look at the relationship between The Florida Studies and three of the seven themes within which we will identify teacher competencies. We suggest that the themes humaneness, seeking, and self-perception are highly compatible with the characteristic perceptual organizations which Gooding found in effective teachers. At this point we will not detail this compatibility; however, an informal matching of items between the two studies indicates almost complete overlap. This will be developed as part of the three themes in Chapter IV.[8]

More significant however, is the compatibility at the thematic (as opposed to item) level. This is obvious with respect to the theme self-perception which is common to both studies. The theme, humaneness, is similar to Gooding's general areas of (1) general frame of reference, and (2) effective teachers' perceptions of others. The theme seeking is compatible with Gooding's general area of effective teachers' perceptions of the teaching task. In the last area, there is a good deal of overlap between Gooding's teacher perception of the teaching task and the theme self-perception. This compatibility lends strong

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[8]The two different studies, while both having proven operational, have been developed separately and the inclusion of specific items within each was somewhat arbitrary, particularly in Gooding's study (Gooding, 1964, p. 76).

support to the inclusion of humaneness, self-perception, and seeking as three of our themes. Furthermore, juxtaposition of Gooding's findings with regards to the characteristic perceptual organizations of effective teachers with statements from the integrated day literature on the teacher's internal frame of reference, will serve to enhance the power and clarity of our statements of teacher competence in the areas of self-perception, humaneness, and seeking.

CHAPTER III

SEVEN AREAS OF TEACHER COMPETENCE CENTRAL TO WORKING IN AN INTEGRATED DAY APPROACH

In Chapter II we defined teacher competence as "knowledge, attitudes, skills and self-perceptions or the products that derive from the mix of these behaviors resulting in consistent patterns of behavior." We also elaborated on the need for a broad competency approach in relation to the nature of the integrated day approach. Following this, an analysis of the major research studies undertaken in this country found that a definite need exists for further clarification of what an integrated day teacher is and does. This analysis included an examination of the development of the conceptualization of the integrated day. Out of this came the decision to use Appendix "D" of the Walberg and Thomas study as the framework for our own identification of teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. We also examined the 'self-as-instrument' concept developed by Combs, et al., and found that it complemented three of the themes to be employed from the Walberg and Thomas study, namely, "self-perception," "seeking," and "humaneness." In this chapter (Chapter III) we attempt to meet the need for further explication of what an integrated day teacher is and does. Through seven themes we identify, with broad yet explicit statements, teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach.

Self-Perception of Teacher

How does an integrated day teacher see himself or herself? The answer to this question must be the starting point for any examination of teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. As discussed previously, the way one sees oneself determines the way one will use the self, "the peculiar way in which he is able to combine his knowledge and understanding with his own unique ways of putting it into operation in such a fashion as to be helpful to others" (Combs, 1969, pp. 10-11). How a teacher see himself, his self-concept, represents the most important single influence affecting his behavior (Combs, 1965, p. 12).

The concept of an effective teacher is quite complex as the above quoted definition makes clear. We will eventually elaborate on each components. To begin, we will examine those characteristics of an individual's perception of self which have been found to be essential to being an effective helper.[1] Gooding found five characteristics of teacher's perception of self which differentiated effective from ineffective teachers. Effective teachers saw themselves as:

1. With people rather than apart from people,

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[1]Our examination in the previous chapter of the work of Combs, et al., made clear that Gooding's study of effective teachers is conceptually an integral part of the larger study of the helping professions. Therefore, we will employ findings from both studies.

2. Able rather than unable,

3. Dependable rather than undependable,

4. Worthy rather than unworthy,

5. Wanted rather than unwanted (Gooding, 1964, p. 28).

He suggests that if we see ourselves as being "with people rather than apart from people," then we identify broadly with other people; we see ourselves as deeply and meaningfully related to diverse persons. This in turn relates to an individual's treatment of others as significant selves. If we add to this the fifth characteristic "wanted rather than unwanted," then we see ourselves liked, wanted, and capable of bringing forth a warm response from those people important to us. We thus see ourselves not only with others, but in a warm relationship with them. This establishes the possibility of letting the other person be. If, on the other hand, an individual sees himself as apart from people and as unwanted, then his own need for others might interfere with his helping them. The act of letting the other person be is at the very core of the helping relationship. Carl Rogers stresses this in his paper "Characteristics of the Helping Relationship." Speaking of the helper in the helping relationship, he asks, "Am I secure enough within myself to permit him his separateness? Can I permit him to be what he is?. . . Can I give him the freedom to be?" (Rogers, 1958, p. 13). He goes on, pointing to less helpful characteristics, "Or, do I feel that he should follow my advice, or remain somewhat dependent on me, or mold himself after me?" (emphasis added, p. 13).

These characteristic perceptions of the self and others extend to the way in which the effective teacher sees the teaching task. One characteristic of the effective teacher's perception of the task is that it is seen as freeing rather than as controlling. "The subject sees the purpose of the helping task as one of freeing, assisting, and facilitating rather than one of controlling, manipulating, coercing, blocking or inhibiting" (Gooding, 1964, p. 28).

Three of the characteristics under Walberg and Thomas' theme of self-perception are related to this idea of recognizing the other person's separateness and of fostering his independence.

> (SP. 4) The teacher feels comfortable with children taking the initiative in learning, making choices, and being independent of her.
>
> (SP. 7) The teacher trusts children's ability to operate effectively and learn in a framework not centered on her.
>
> (SP. 8) The teacher sees herself as one of many sources of knowledge and attention in the classroom (Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. D-9).

One manifestation of this trust (SP. 7) can be seen in the way the teacher organizes the classroom. If, in recognizing children's need for different kinds of space and of quiet areas, the teacher "creates places that are out of sight, there is opportunity for the teacher to encourage such trustworthiness in children that they will work well in them, and gain in independence and initiative," (Webb, 1969, p. 11).

Godding's second characteristic perception of the self involves seeing oneself as able rather than as unable. In this case the individual sees himself as having the abilities necessary to deal with his problems effectively. He perceives himself as bacially able to make his own decisions and deal with events.

Seeing the self as 'able,' as 'wanted' and as 'with people,' are characteristic perceptual organizations found by Gooding in effective teachers. It will be instructive to compare these characteristics with those delineated by Walberg and Thomas under their theme self-perception. They found ten characteristics essential in clarifying self-perception of open education (integrated day) teachers.

SP. 1: The teacher views herself as an active experimenter in the process of creating and adapting ideas and materials.

SP. 2: The teacher sees herself as a continual learner who explores new ideas and possibilities both inside and outside the classroom.

SP 3: The teacher values the way she is teaching as an opportunity for her own personal and professional growth and change.

SP 4: The teacher feels comfortable with children taking the initiative in learning, making choices, and being independent of her.

SP 5: The teacher recognizes her own habits and need for importance and recognition; she tries to restrain herself from intervening in children's activities based on impatience or these needs rather the children's.

SP 6: The teacher sees her own feelings as an acceptable part of the classroom experience.

SP 7: The teacher trusts children's ability to operate effectively and learn in a framework not centered on her.

SP 8: The teacher sees herself as one of many sources of knowledge and attention in the classroom.

SP 9: The teacher trusts herself as one who can facilitate learning within a structure which necessitates spontaneous responding to individuals and to a changing variety of situations.

SP 10: The teacher feels comfortable working without predetermined lesson plans and set curricula or fixed time periods for subjects (Walberg and Thomas, p. D-9, D-10).

What does it mean for the teacher to see herself as an active experimenter and continual learner (SP1 and SP2)? To answer this we might refer back to the Bussis-Chittenden paradigm to once more remind ourselves that the two critical variables they saw as instrumental in the open classroom were an active child and an active teacher. Activeness seems to be a key characteristic. But how is it manifested? How is it translated into teacher competency? It is manifested on one level in terms of the teacher's view of her role as a professional. Walberg and Thomas suggest that "the teacher values the way she is teaching as an opportunity for her own personal and professional growth and change" (SP3). Armington (1971) in the proposal upon which the EDC Follow Through Program is based, writes,

> Modern education offers teachers the opportunity for a new vision of their professional role. The con-

> cept of the teacher as authority figure and supreme dispenser of knowledge must be changed. Now, more than ever, learning requires that teachers, as well as children, adopt the spirit and style of the experimenter. . . the teacher must be, first of all, an investigator of his students. Secondly he must have the opportunity, indeed the responsibility, to continue his own learning (pp. 9-10).

Others have had a similar view of the teacher's perceptions of her role. Rathbone suggests that the teacher must see herself as an "experimenter engaged in clinical research in at least two fields - child psychology and curriculum development" (Rathbone, 1970, pp. 107-108). Rugg and Schumaker argue that the "artist-teacher is a student - a student of both the child and society" (in Walberg and Thomas, p. A-53). Clearly the implication is that the teacher as a professional is engaged, committed to something far beyond being involved in merely a job, far beyond the factory mentality which punches in and punches out on a time clock allowing only this to define commitment.

It is essential that the teacher's perception of himself as an active experimenter and learner not be divorced from the perception he has of himself in the classroom alongside the child. His activeness as student of the child and society must not be confined merely to the pursuit courses (although they might play a part). Rather, he carries his 'study' into his relationships with children and other teachers in school. This brings us to a second level at which the characteristic "active" is manifested; that of teacher as decision-

maker. This corresponds closely with a teacher's perception of himself as "able." We stated above that this implies that an individual sees himself as having the abilities necessary to deal with his problems effectively. He perceives himself as basically able to make his own decision that is, to deal with events. If we look at the teacher as experimenter-learner in the classroom, one of the most critical manifestations will be teacher as decision-maker. This will be dealt with in great depth under the themes provisioning and instruction; here it will suffice to broadly draw the image we want to portray. Walberg and Thomas suggest two characteristics of self-perception which help define the parameters of teacher as decision-maker.

SP 9: The teacher feels comfortable working without predetermined lesson plans and set curriculum or fixed time periods for subjects.

SP 10: The teacher trusts herself as one who can facilitate learning within a structure which necessitates spontaneous responding to individuals and to a changing variety of situations.

Thus, we have a teacher who sees himself actively engaged in improving his grasp of and facility with both children and the environment (curriculum). This process of growth is manifested in the multiplicity of decisions for which the teacher assumes responsibility so that he increasingly deals with individuals (and groups of individuals) in a variety of contexts whose variables include time, materials, educational goals and objectives, and affect. The list can get very large. The point is that the teacher's active involvement precludes the necessity

for his having to reduce the complexity of classroom variables to the point of obstructing children's learning. The situation speaks of complexity and flux. A high tolerance for ambiguity is essential.

> She is not trying to please someone else, or to follow some 'correct model'. She is living and acting and deciding in a fluid situation. She is even aware of the elements most threatening to her and faces these frightening aspects of the experience openly, in herself (Rogers, 1969, pp. 23-24).

By refocusing on two earlier ideas, we can pursue further an area of some significance. We have examined self-perceptions, including seeing oneself as "able," as an "active experimenter," and as a "continual learner." The interface of these characteristics provides an area within which we can subsume another perspective of the integrated day teacher. This is Rathbone's idea of the teacher as agent.

> An agent, in the Open Education sense of the term, is ideally one who has an understanding of and a confidence in his own resources. Acceptance of self, of one's own ability to ascertain what is true, belief in one's ability to build adequate models of reality by observing the way things happen, confidence in one's own powers, not only to solve significant problems but to set them and perceive them in the first place: these are the attitudes towards self which this way of schooling tries deliberately to promote. The teacher who feels these things himself and who knows he feels them and who feels able to communicate their importance to another person: this is the ideal teacher who will have the capacity to function straight-forwardly as a human resource (Rathbone, 1970, pp. 129-130).

Consonant with this view, Combs speaks of the effective teacher as "a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently" (Combs, 1965, p. 12). We are seeing the self as instrument, as resource, as agent; one who sees himself as able, who in Rathbone's phrase has a sense of and a confidence in his own resources. This is a teacher who is alive, and, who brings his "self" into the classroom. Indeed, Walberg and Thomas write, "The teacher sees her own feelings as an acceptable part of the classroom experience." Carl Rogers elaborates, "he takes the initiative in sharing himself with the group - his feelings as well as his thoughts - in ways which do not demand nor impose but represent simply a personal sharing which students may take or leave" (Rogers, 1969, p. 165). Thus, we bring together Gooding's characteristics of seeing the self as 'wanted' and as 'with people,' with Walberg and Thomas' characteristic of the teacher sharing not only her ideas but also her feelings. With her peers she shares her pursuit of trying to understand children and how they learn.

A different manifestation of the teacher's acceptance of self is that often his interests will be evidenced in the classroom. Indeed, they might be a frequent vehicle through which the teacher works in many areas with different children. Thus we recognize that "the interests of the teacher are contagious" (Brown and Precious, 1969, p. 29). This by no means suggests the classroom will become teacher oriented. Rather, as stressed before, children and teacher both actively contribute, both bring their "selves" to the learning environment.

While recognizing the crucial importance of the teacher bringing his 'self' into the learning environment both in terms of his emotions and in terms of his interests, an important balance must be maintained. There needs to be some sanctuary, some other life where the self finds nourishment. Prescott, examining her own growth through working in an integrated day classroom, makes these observations:

> It is essential that the teacher not devote all of her time to making the classroom work. . . It is impossible to bring humor, freshness and ease into the classroom when one has not been refreshed by things other than worry and work. . . In order to keep the balance of a happy, relaxed yet busy and motivated atmosphere in school one must practice the balancing on oneself out of school. That and patience with self. Too often we expect too much too soon, (in Walberg and Thomas, p. A-54).

Along with this nourishment of self, there needs to be a constant effort to understand this self. Without this understanding one cannot expect to help others understand their "selves." This has been clearly articulated by Jersild in his book When Teachers Face Themselves.

> A teacher cannot make much headway in understanding others or in helping others to undestand themselves unless he is endeavoring to understand himself. If he is not endeavoring, he will continue to see those whom he teaches through the bias and distortion of his own unrecognized needs, fears, desires, anxieties, hostile impulses, and so on. The process of gaining knowledge of self and the struggle for self-fulfillment and satisfaction is not something an instructor teaches others. It is something in which he himself must be involved, (Jersild, in Gardner and Case, p. 11).

Rathbone emphasizes this same idea. "The best way it would seem of attaining. . . an affective understanding of affective learning in general would be to know about one's own affective learning in particular," (Rathbone, 1970).

This brings us to one final aspect of teacher's self-perceptions. As suggested above by Jersild, modeling is an important source of instruction. And we concur, when Brearley writes, "it is important that teachers should be conscious of the kinds of models they present for children's learning (Brearley, 1970, p. 155). Bandura's writings on modeling behavior and its impact on behavior change are particularly instructive here (see particularly Bandura, 1965). He makes a significant distinction between performance and learning.[2] He demonstrates in numerous studies that the learning of new, particularly complex behavior, is greatly enhanced by behavioral models. His experiments have focused on delay of gratification and self-reinforcement as well as the learning of new and complex patterns of behavior. In all these aspects of

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[2]It should be noted that learning here refers to change in behavior in contrast to our previously discussed focus on learning as change in insight. We do not view perceptual and behavioral psychologies as mutually exclusive. As our definition of competency makes clear, we are not only concerned with attitudes and perceptions, but also with behaviors. For two dissimilar, but useful discussions of behaviorism, see: Peter C. Madden, "Skinner and the Open Classroom" in Insights Vol. IV, No. 5, January-February 1972, New School, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, 58201; and John Platt, "Beyond Freedom and Dignity: 'A Revolutionary Manifesto'" The Center Magazine, Vol. 5, No. 2, March-April 1972.

behavior change, modeling proved highly effective. This seems particularly important when considered in light of several dimensions of teacher competence discussed earlier: the teacher as resource, as experimenter, as learner, as one who deals with problems openly and without retribution. These involve complex behavior patterns, often novel to the child (at least novel in their adult, non-egocentric manifestations). Thus we would stress the importance of the teacher's behavior in terms of modeling, but even more the imperative for the teacher to be aware of the kinds of models she presents to children.

Self-Perception: Summary

In this section we have examined the integrated day teacher's self-perception. He sees himself as liked, wanted, and with people. That is, he feels good about himself in his relations with others, both adult and child. In this positive relationship with others, he is accepting of others. He trusts them. This allows him to perceive the teaching task as concerned with freeing rather than controlling and he sees himself as one of many resources he makes available to the children. He feels able, and capable of playing a responsive role in a fluid situation characterized by a flexible curriculum and timetable. The teacher understands and is conscious of himself as a model. As such he models those behaviors he holds as educationally worthy; he is an active experimenter and learner. This leads to continual decision-making. Thus he is in the very broadest sense an active agent, autonomous and yet responsive.

Seeking Opportunity to Promote Growth

Still working within Combs eoneept of "the self-as-instrument," we will now examine the theme 'seeking'. We will begin by looking at two speeifie eharaeteristies of effeetive teachers' pereeptions of the teaehing task as identified by Gooding. These are:

> Revealing-Concealing
> The subjeet sees as appropriate to his role the revealing and diselosing of his true self.
>
> Involved-Uninvolved
> The subjeet sees as appropriate to his role a total eommitment to the helping proeess (Gooding, 1964, p. 29).

The first pereeption, that of seeing the teaching task as revealing of self, relates to the previous diseussion of teachers' trying to be themselves. We saw above that only in striving to understand himself eould the teaeher hope to help ehildren understand themselves. Walberg and Thomas speeify two related eharaeteristies whieh extend this thought. First, "the teaeher makes use of help from a supportive advisor" (S4). There is implied here, beyond the mere aeeeptanee of help, a larger eoneept of growth. People, not just teaeher or ehild, are seen in proeess, as eontinually growing. This is elosely related to the teacher's pereeption of himself as a learner, and as sueh, the teaeher's aeeeptanee of help in the proeess of learning and growing is a mirror image of the teaeher's pereeption of his relationship with the ehild. As a learner, the teaeher reeognizes that he has strengths and weaknesses and that others ean

facilitate his building on strengths and improving areas of weakness. This process necessitates an understanding and openness to self. Thus, Jersild argues that, "if a person would help others to understand themselves, he must strive to understand himself and he must be willing to accept help in the process" (Jersild, 1952, p. 118). We have moved from the teacher trying to understand himself - both for himself and in order to help children do the same - to seeing the teacher as being accepting of supportive help in this endeavor. Following this development, we will now look at the teacher in his relations with his colleagues, although still vis-a-vis his endeavor to understand and help the child. Colleagues can be an important source of support. In fact, their support can be critical in those not uncommon situations where there is no supportive advisor. Walberg and Thomas identify a second characteristics of 'seeking' which attaches similar importance to collegeality. "The Teacher enjoys ongoing communications with other teachers about children and learning" (S5).

Having moved from seeing the teacher in terms of himself, to seeing him in terms of his helping relationship with children and colleagues brings us to consideration of Gooding's second characteristic of effective teachers' perception of the teaching task. The effective teacher sees the teaching task as involved with, indeed as requiring, a total commitment to the helping process. Reference to such commitment abounds in the literature on the integrated day and is implicit in several of Walberg and Thomas' characteristics of the theme

'seeking'. For example:

S1. The teacher seeks information about new materials,

S2. The teacher experiments herself with materials.

Both practitioners and observers of the integrated day are virtually unanimous in their assertion that it requires more effort, more commitment of time, energy and self than traditional teaching. Because of this, a deep commitment to the approach itself is requisite. Carl Rogers tells about such commitment in a young teacher with whom he had contact.

> Miss Shiel was clearly and deeply commited to a philosophy of reliance upon self-direction and freedom as leading to the most significant learning. This commitment was not a rigid one; indeed her personal doubts and waverings are one of the most significant features of her account, because they indicate that such an approach can be carried through by imperfect, uncertain individuals, who are by no means clothed in the robes of self-assurance. But my point is that this was not simply a technique or "gimmick." Though she calls it an experiment, it was an experiment in which she believed, and about which she had convictions, (Rogers, 1969, p. 23).

Brown and Precious (1970), two heads of schools in England, offer a different perspective on this idea of commitment.

> For the well being of the child, the teacher may have to resist pressures from over anxious parents and to do this she must be convinced in her own mind that what she is doing is of great value educationally. This is where the unacquainted teacher is at sea, (1968, p. 34).

This commitment is evidenced in two other characteristics of Walberg and Thomas' 'seeking' theme and extends the teacher's endeavor to understand

children beyond the boundaries of the school. One is, "the teacher seeks further information about the community and its physical and cultural resources" (S3). Dewey was particularly concerned about the importance of knowing the community's physical and cultural resources. He wrote in Education and Experiences, "the teacher should become intimately acquainted with the conditions of the local community, physical, historical, economic, occupational, etc., in order to utilize them as educational resources" (Dewey, 1938, p. 40). The other characteristics from Walberg and Thomas which is relevant here is "the teacher attempts to know more about the children by getting to know their parents or relatives and their neighborhood" (S6). There are several implications in this characteristic. For one, it relates to the overriding need for the teacher to provide continuity; a theme also much stressed by Dewey and, more recently by Lillian Weber. Referring to the mental structures that the child brings to school Weber writes, "the educator must be aware of this real structure because the learning that predates school, that is the prehistory of school learning, is the base for school learning. . . The adult has the obligation not only to provide continuity but extension" (Weber, 1971, p. 181). She comes back to this theme time and time again.

> The English infant school teacher is certainly not, at this point, content with a role that presumes provision of a standard environment. She has taken the further step of accepting responsibility for making the mesh that produces continuity. School environment is now examined for this mesh with the home background (Weber, 1971, p. 225).

Not all school learning will have roots in the home background. Where it does not it is important that the teacher realizes this. This is particularly crucial where the discontinuity lies in the area of values. Brearley speaks to this point:

> . . . it would also seem important to scrutinize clearly the values to which the children are exposed outside the school, through the mass media and in popular culture. Only after such a scrutiny has taken place can teachers become aware of the extent to which they are reinforcing these values or presenting alternative ones (Brearley, 1970, p. 155).

The problem of continuity demands involvement by the teacher in another area which is in some ways quite distinct from getting to know the child's family and community. Continuity not only involves the child and his home and cultural background, but on a much more immediate level it involves his relationship to the school learning environment and particularly to the materials available to him in that environment. Two Walberg and Thomas characteristics cited above point to this. These involve the teacher in seeking information about new materials and in experimenting with them. Weber elaborates on this theme.

> It is. . . <u>necessary</u> for the teacher to understand as much and as deeply as possible the content of the environment she has provided. Certainly the teacher must see relationships, connections, alternative possibilities and potentialities of exploration (Weber, 1971, p. 228).

The teacher's experimentation with new materials leads to the making of yet other materials. He tries something and it needs adaptation, so he makes it anew. The teacher must be involved in making and adapting materials; finding what looks like an appropriate commercial material is not enough. A frequent doubt about the necessity of the teacher's involvement in making materials takes the form of the old straw man, "Why re-invent the wheel?" "Why not just use the teacher's guide?" But, with invention and discovery comes a tacit understanding of purposes, of possibilities and limitations. Thus, our concern is with the process of invention and discovery and with the kinds of understandings which accompany it. Weber makes a similar point when she says, "only a teacher who had participated in discovery experiences herself and had thought her way through the many potential questions, could be attuned helpfully to a child's questions" (p. 123). Kallet elaborates on this as he examines the relationship between child and material and how the teacher may enter this relationship.

> In order to join a conversation you must obviously know what a conversation is about - not just the specific conversation but conversation in general. You must know what it feels like to take part in a discussion, My analogy suggests that to join a child-material conversation you must know what it feels like to work with materials (Kallet, in Rathbone, 1971, p. 79).

Not all the materials in the classroom will be commercially produced. The teacher must be a scrounger, ferreting natural materials and junk out of the local environment. Gardner and Cass observed of a teacher in their study, "much of her spare time was necessarily spent in finding and making suggestion

books and collections of materials" (p. 158). We will examine the teacher as 'scrounger' and as adapter in much greater depth in the theme 'provisioning'.

Seeking Opportunities to Promote Growth: Summary

Basically this theme speaks to the whole area of the teacher's professional commitment. As established in the previous theme, the teacher sees himself as a learner. As such he is acceptant of help from supportive advisors, recognizing that he has strengths and weaknesses. He enters a helping relationship with supportive advisors and with colleagues which reflects the kind of relationship he establishes with his children. His commitment is further manifested in his active involvement in seeking out new materials and new possibilities with material he already has. He also explores the school neighborhood, seeing the community, particularly parents and relatives as an important resource. An understanding and appreciation of the child's neighborhood and family, as well as of the learning environment he provides, enables the teacher to provide continuity between the child and his world.

Humaneness - Respect, Openness, and Warmth

Today much is made of the idea of "humanistic education." The point to be made here is that humanism is nothing more or less than the way we see and accept ourselves and each other. On several occasions the question has been raised about what humanistic education might offer the integrated day.

However, this is a logical contradiction. Both the descriptive literature on the integrated day and the studies upon which we are building are heavily weighted in stressing and examining the whole realm of human relations, of humaneness. Carl Rogers underscores our concern when he writes,

> Better courses, better curricula, better coverage, better teaching machines, will never resolve our dilemma in a basic way. Only persons acting like persons in their relationships with their students can ever begin to make a dent in this most urgent problem of modern education (Rogers, 1969, p. 125).

We will examine the theme humaneness and determine its implications for teacher competency. Walberg and Thomas' characteristics for this particular theme are quite exhaustive and will provide a useful framework for our examination.[3]

(H2) The teacher rarely commands or reprimands.

(H10) There is no abdication of responsible adult authority.

(H11) The class operates within clear guidelines made explicit.

(H9) Conflict is recognized and worked out within the context of the group, not simply forbidden or handled by the teacher alone.

Humaneness is not equated with permissivness. Or, as Dennison says, 'If compulsion is damaging and unwise, its antithesis - a vacuum of free choice -

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[3]In this, and the following themes, we will employ Walberg and Thomas' characteristics to organize our discussion of the themes. The characteristics will not necessarily be employed in the same order as in the Walberg and Thomas study.

is unreal" (Dennison, 1969, p. 110). In this section we will deal with the four above characteristics from Walberg and Thomas. We do this because they are all related to the crucial issue of freedom and authority, an issue about which there is too often serious misunderstanding with regard to the position of integrated day educators. A significant finding in Evans' study of the Characteristics of Open Education (1971) is that open classroom teachers were judged to be "in charge" of their classrooms, that they are responsible and do not abdicate authority (p. 17). However, it is essential that this not imply authoritarianism on the teacher's part. The distinction between authority and authoritarianism is central to our discussion of the above characteristics and hence of freedom and authority. Duberman makes this distinction clearly and forcefully.

> 'A crucial distinction must be made between authority and authoritarianism. The former represents accumulated experience, knowledge and insight. The latter represents their counterfeits: age masquerading as maturity, information as understanding, technique as originality. Authoritarianism is forced to demand the respect that authority draws naturally to itself. The former, like all demands, is likely to meet with hostility; the latter, like all authenticity, with emulation. . . ! It is vital to the successful functioning of the open classroom that the teacher be an authority, without becoming an authoritarian' (quoted in Barth, 1970, p. 107).

How can the teacher be an authority without becoming an authoritarian? The ensuing discussion should help the reader to formulate an answer. Two

authors provide us with a start. Dewey admonishes the teacher to reduce "to a minimum the occasions in which he or she has to exercise authority in a personal way. When it is necessary. . . to speak and act firmly, it is done in behalf of the interest of the group, not as an exhibition of personal power" (Dewey, 1938, p. 39). Dewey sees education as a social process and the quality of this process is a function of the extent to which the individuals involved form a community group. The teacher must be seen as a part of this group. "It is absurd to exclude the teacher from membership in the group" (Dewey, 1938, p. 58). When the teacher is seen as part of the group, he "loses the position of external boss or dictator but takes on that of leader of group activities" (p. 59). In giving up the position of external boss or dictator, the teacher in no way abdicates his authority or responsibility. The writings on open education lay particular emphasis on this.

> Open schools are not laissez-faire places where anything goes. The teacher knows and the child knows that an authority is present and that the teacher, no matter how personal and supportive he may be, is that authority. Teachers believe that although a child may appear to work for disorder, no child enjoys disorder. All recognize that unless someone is in charge they will not be able to move freely, explore freely, and choose freely (Barth, 1970, p. 111).

Even A. S. Neill, whose reputation for permissiveness is immeasurable, writes:

> In actual practice there is, of course, authority. Such authority might be called protection, care, adult responsibility. Such authority sometimes demands obedience but at other times gives obedience (Neill, 1960, p. 156).

Central to the teacher and children working together is the function of setting limits. Again, open educators are clear on this point. "The teacher must be able to judge what attitudes are actually conducive to continued growth and what are detrimental" (Dewey, 1938, p. 39). A teacher writes, "You've got to have order, you can't have chaos in your classroom . . . You see, you make your rules as well" (Cazden, quoted in Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. A-43). Weber says of one teacher she observed that the teacher expected children could cope, but she had "a definite sensitivity to what she considered 'unsettled'" (Weber, 1971, p. 41). Brown and Precious concur:

> [The teacher] has the final responsibility for making decisions and setting the boundaries between what is acceptable and what is unacceptable in the room; but the discipline of the group is based on mutual respect between the teacher and the child, and between child and child, and is gradually assumed as a group responsibility (Brown and Precious, 1969, p. 26).

The last point made by Brown and Precious shifts our focus from the teacher back to the teacher and the children as a group. They spoke of discipline "gradually being assumed as a group responsibility." This brings us to the final section in our discussion of freedom and authority.

We must now look at the characteristic: "Conflict is recognized and

worked out within the context of the group, not simply forbidden or handled by the teacher alone" (H9). In order for this to take place the teacher must make sure that the children are well aware of the limits, even if these include only the outlawing of destroying equipment and destroying or interferring in another's work. The teacher must realize that conflict is inevitable in the social context and that working out the conflict to its resolution is an essential part of the growth process. Weber agrees that children need to work out their conflicts and emphasizes the importance of the teacher accepting "that children need to test the limits of their ability to cope" (p. 42). The teacher's role in this process goes beyond making explicit the limits or rules, as important as that is. After all, the authoritarian could do the same. The teacher must also give his reasons. This need not involve moralizing. Personal limits are justifiable and children usually accept them. The point to be made here is that "teachers can help in laying the foundations for a rational morality by attempting to get children to understand the justification for rules. Justifications are reasons which are rational rather than arbitrary" (Brearley, 1970, p. 152).

Like most of the other things with which we are concerned in school, assuming the responsibility for self-discipline is a learned behavior. As such, the teacher must give thought and energy to its development. She models appropriate behavior. She makes room for budding efforts well knowing that some may abort, and, she reinforces those efforts that move in the right

direction. Dewey summarizes our point:

> the primary source of social control resides in the very nature of the work done as a social enterprise in which all individuals have an opportunity to contribute and to which all feel a responsibility. Most children are naturally "sociable". . . But community does not organize itself in an enduring way purely spontaneously. It requires thought and planning ahead (Dewey, 1938, p. 56 emphasis added).

We will continue to employ Walberg and Thomas' humaneness characteristics individually as they relate to our development of this theme.

> (H1) The teacher respects each child's personal style of operating, thinking and acting.

Not surprisingly, one of Gooding's characteristic ways of perceiving is directly related to this characteristic of humaneness. Gooding found that effective teachers perceived others as worthy. He says, "The subject sees others as possessing a dignity and integrity which must be respected at all times" (Gooding, 1964, p. 27). Related to this, Weber makes an important distinction concerning our attitudes towards individuality. She says, "the teacher doesn't strive for or seek to produce individuality rather he recognizes it (1971, p. 174). Brearley concurs that "children are unique persons and their individuality is to be acknowledged and respected" (1970, p. 159). Thus, the first point to be made is that teachers must respect children's individuality, which individuality is a given, not an objective to be produced. This respect is never a patronizing acceptance. It is part of a mutual relationship. Rathbone

speaks of "an important priority: namely, that it is more important for a child to have the experience of receiving someone else's respect for him and for his views, than to have the experience of submitting to someone else's notion of 'what's good for him'" (Rathbone, 1970, p. 81-82). How is this respect shown? Weber suggests that the "teacher responds to children's differences in pace and pattern of synthesis by accepting a wide range of responses and modes of experience" (Weber, 1971, p. 27 emphasis added). On a very different level, Gardner and Cass cite a particular case, "Miss B. respected her children and they certainly respected her. She welcomed the children when they came into the room in the morning and often said, 'Please' or 'thank you' or asked a child's permission before looking at a piece of work" (Gardner and Cass, 1965, p. 157). Respect of both kinds is important, both in interpersonal relations and also in the less obvious realm of the kinds of expectations that are set up in terms of both acceptable modes of expression and the criteria of quality; for without the latter, the former is only a mockery of respect.

(H3) The teacher values each child's activities and products as legitimate expressions of his interests, not simply as reflections of his development.

Part of this valuing comes through disregarding a child's chronological age and seeing the child's activities or products only in terms of what is the best that he can do. It also speaks to a strong conviction that a child's learning is not a preparation for life but a vital part of his present living. Thus, the teacher

values his activity or product as an expression of his life as he is living it, right at that moment in the classroom.

(H4) The teacher demonstrates respect for each child's ideas by making use of them whenever possible.

Perhaps the most obvious manifestation of this is seen in the teacher's making use of the children's work. Children's stories are gathered and bound into books. Their problems and explorations are translated into open-ended questions for all to share. These are shared orally or visually. Children's aesthetic expression decorates the room. It is not only out of respect but also for efficiency's sake that one child's ideas and work are used as stimulants for others. By displaying a child's work, the teacher demonstrates his respect for it, reinforcing the child's efforts. But the importance of display goes far beyond this. One child's work, whether a story or questions about something observed or a problem solved, when displayed becomes a source of learning for others. And when this occurs, there is truly a powerful reinforcement of the child's effort. At the same time the teacher finds, in displaying a child's work, an opportunity to set and examine standards of visual expression. In order for ideas to be shared and respected orally, skill in listening becomes essential for both teacher and child. Weber writes,

> Listening was highly encouraged. The teacher had an expectation of being listened to. . . But how <u>little</u> the children had to listen <u>to</u>, and how often the teacher stopped to listen to the children. They were considered individuals saying important things (Weber, p. 40).

An important qualifying note should be made here. The teacher does not respect all products and activities indiscriminately. This would be a disservice to the child because it would hinder the development of his own self-standards. It is essential that the teacher has a sense of values, that he knows what he will and what he will not accept. This does not in any way suggest arbitrariness. In fact, the teacher should encourage the children to set their own standards. This is a learned behavior and the teacher should be conscious of its development.

(H5) The teacher respects each child's feelings by taking them seriously.

(H8) The teacher attempts to recognize each child's emotions with an understanding of that particular child and the circumstances.

The importance of taking a child's feelings seriously was underscored in the Coleman Report.

> Coleman concluded that. . . those with low interest in school, low self-concept and low sense of control had low achievement. . . If attitudes such as self-concept and sense of control are the most important factor in educational achievement changes will be required in schools. . . that teachers begin to look at the concerns of kids, that they try to find out what kids are feeling, what they are thinking about, . . . and what they do with themselves (Borton, 1970 p. 59 in Walberg and Thomas, p. A-39).

Coleman argued for paying attention to feelings as a possible solution to low achievement. Supportive of this argument is Gooding's finding that effective teachers' general frame of reference was characterized by perceptual meanings

rather than facts and events. "The subject is more concerned with the phenomeno-logical experiences of people than with objective events and facts" (Gooding, 1964, p. 29). Gooding also found that these same teachers also tended to be "sensitive to and concerned with how others feel about things and how things look to others" (p. 29).

The second characteristic to which we are addressing ourselves (H5) suggests another perspective from which the teacher must view 'feelings'. Feelings are educable. Brearley argues that ". . . since moral issues involve interpersonal relationships, the education of the emotions is a vital aspect of moral education," (1970, p. 168). She then extends this line of reasoning, "the complexity of the inner life with its areas of fantasy and confusion is part of our human condition; education can lead to clarification and understanding if teaching is seen as supporting, extending and continuing purposes from within, (p. 168).

(H6) The teacher recognizes and does not try to hide her own emotional responses.

Walberg and Thomas quoted Barth in substantiating this particular characteristic.

> It is not only desirable from the adult's point of view that he behave openly with children, it is essential from the child's point of view. Children must receive frequent and accurate responses from the personal as well as from the physical world; in order to learn, they must be provided with the interpersonal consequences

> of their actions as well as the physical consequences. Thus, prompt expression of annoyance and anger towards a disruptive child is essential for both teacher and child and for the establishment of their relationship (Barth, in Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. A-39).

Expression of feelings, either positive or negative, by the teacher is important for both teacher and child. It is important to the teacher because it is a part of him for as Rogers says, "he (the teacher) comes into a direct personal encounter with the learner, meeting him on a person to person basis. It means that he is being himself not denying himself" (Rogers, 1969, p. 106). He goes on to share an incident reported in a teacher's journal.

> I find it maddening to live with the mess - with a capital M! No one seems to care except me. Finally, one day I told the children. . . that I am a neat, orderly person by nature and that the mess was driving me to distraction. Did they have a solution? It was suggested there were some volunteers who could clean up. . . I said it didn't seem fair to me to have the same people clean up all the time for others - but it would solve it for me. "Well, some people like to clean," they replied. So that's the way it is (Rogers, 1969, p. 108).

The teacher's expression of her feelings is also important for the child. As suggested by Barth, it gives him immediate feedback on his actions. This is part of moral education referred to above by Brearley. Furthermore, such expression helps to establish the teacher's credibility because it makes it easier to relate to her as a real person. Too often teachers have endeavored to maintain a mistaken sense of objectivity and in so doing have frozen their emotions. Contrast this with Rogers: the teacher "must be close to (his)

feelings, capable of being aware of them. Then (he) must be willing to take the risk of sharing them as they are, inside, not disguising them as judgements, or attributing them to other people" (p. 114).

(H7) Children feel free to express their feelings.

This is not a teacher competency in and of itself; it is, however, a manifestation of teacher competence. Brown and Precious suggest that the teacher establish "an intimate personal relationship so that the child will turn naturally to her for help, approval or advice" (Brown and Precious, 1970, p. 27). Children's free expression of their feelings can be further fostered by the teacher's modeling expressive behavior himself, as suggested in the previous characteristic. Quite clearly, the degree to which children do express their feelings will reflect both the amount of trust that exists in the interpersonal relations and the appropriateness the teacher attaches to such expression. This leads to two other characteristics of the theme 'humaneness'.

(H12) The teacher promotes openness and trust among children and in his relationship with each child.

(H13) Relationships are characterized by unsentimental warmth and affection.

Above we spoke of schoollearning as a social process in which we see the teacher as part of the group. In this context we want to examine how she promotes openness and trust within this group and how she creates relationships

eharaeterized by unsentimental warmth and affection. We also will look at how we know she has achieved the above.

Gooding found that effective teachers perceived people and their behavior as friendly rather than unfriendly and as dependable rather than undependable. These teachers see others as friendly, enhaneing and essentially well intentioned toward themselves (Gooding, 1964, p. 27). They also see others as "trustworthy in the sense of behaving in a lawful, positive way rather than as behaving in a capricious, unpredictable, or negative manner" (p. 27). Weber found similar characteristics in teachers in informal elassrooms in London. "The teacher trusts children" (1971, p. 42) and "the teacher has confidenee in children" (p. 43). Essentially what we are saying is that the teacher brings to his children a positive expectation about them and their relationship with each other and with him.

Carl Rogers offers an interesting description of how this trust and confidence is expressed and in doing so he comments on the nature of the caring involved in the relationship. Describing those attitudes which facilitate learning, he says,

> It is a caring for the learner, but a non-possessive caring. It is an acceptance of this other individual as a separate person. . . What we are describing is a prizing of the learner as an imperfect human being with many feelings, many potentialities. The facilitator's prizing or acceptanee of the learner is an operational expression of his essential confidence

> and trust in the capacity of the human organism (Rogers, 1969, p. 109).

Brearley, a long time student of both teacher and child in integrated day classrooms, offers further diagnosis of good teacher-child relationships.

> A way of educating based on developmental knowledge prescribes its own relationship of warm objectivity. Teachers and children must observe laws of good relationships and learn in the comparatively sheltered environment of the school what these are. No one would attempt a formulation of rules but it is certain that qualities of integrity, respect, disinterestedness and generosity will lead to good relationships as that arbitrariness, contempt, unkindness and fear will lead away from them (Brearley, p. 184 emphasis added).

The characteristic perceptual organizations found by Gooding and cited above are an important source of the kinds of qualities which Brearley suggests help to make a good relationship. Less obvious, but of equal importance to the establishment of confidence, is the actual help the teacher provides the child in terms of instruction. This has been clearly articulated by David Hawkins.

> The importance of the "I-Thou" relationship between the teacher and the child is that the child learns something about the adult which can be described with words like "confidence," "trust" and "respect." The teacher has done something for the child he could not do for himself, and the child knows it. He's involved in something new that has proved engrossing to him. If he thus learns that he has the competence to do something that he didn't know he could, then, the teacher has been a very crucial figure in his life. He has provided that external loop, that external feedback, that the child couldn't provide for himself; he then values the one who provides the thing provided.

> What is the feeling one has toward a person who does this? It needn't be what is called love, but it certainly is what is called respect. A person is valued because he is uniquely useful in helping another individual on with his own life (Hawkins in Rathbone, ed., 1971, p. 91).

An important assumption is addressed here. It is assumed that children have a natural desire to learn and, that if meaningful learning is not taking place, the child will not be satisfied. By facilitating the child's learning the teacher becomes a significant self in the child's eyes because learning is inherently significant to the child. It is interesting to note that this is supported by Gooding's finding that effective teachers see others as internally motivated, "as creative, dynamic, and able to develop their behavior and character from within themselves rather than as being passive, inert, and molded by external forces" (Gooding, 1964, p. 27).

Finally, we can look at some of the manifestations of a relationship which is moving towards greater openness and trust.

> People become more and more receptive to honest observations of themselves, their own motives and the behaviors and motives of others. As communication about these things increases, so does mutual respect, and, with both, a greater capacity for toleration of difference. The result is an increase in an individual's freedom to change, if and when he finds change desirable (Belanger et al., quoted in Rathbone, 1970, p. 87).

(H15) In evaluating a child's work, the teacher responds sincerely, based upon a real examination of the product and its relation to the particular child and circumstance.

This characteristics will be considered under the theme "evaluation."

(H14) The teacher recognizes and admits her limitations when she feels unable to give a child the help he needs.

Several ideas are at work here. First, the teacher perceives that it is appropriate for him not always to be right. Neither does he have to know everything. This corresponds with his feeling that he is a learner, a growing individual. Charles Silberman, in his study on Informal Education focuses on this. He writes,

> Informal education relieves the teacher of the terrible burden of omniscience. . .In an informal classroom. . . the teacher is the facilitator rather than the source of learning, the source being the child himself. . . The consequence is an atmosphere in which everyone is learning together, and in which teachers therefore feel comfortable saying to children, "I'm awfully sorry, I don't know much about this. Let's go to the library and get a book and we'll find out together (Silberman, 1970, pp. 267-268).

A second idea contained in this characteristic is an assumption common among integrated day educators, namely, that the teacher sees the child developmentally. Brown and Precious make an interesting observation regarding one implication of the developmental view. "Teachers must always be prepared for setbacks and dissappointments and not allow their enthusiasm to suffer. . . She must not be dissappointed or discouraged when the child regresses" (Brown and Precious, 1970, p. 126). The implication is that progress in a child is uneven, both across areas of growth and within him. A child will sprint ahead,

then may appear to regress while he consolidates his gains. The teacher must see this for what it is.

> (H16) The teacher promotes an unthreatening climate by helping children to accept mistakes as part of learning, not as measures of failure.

This relates to the teacher's perception of herself and others as learners and experimenters. He sees errors "as information by which one can correct one's practice or ideas rather than behaviors to be eliminated" (Brearley, 1970, p. 168). Rathbone suggests that to create an unthreatening climate characterized by an acceptance of mistakes, the teacher must have a "high tolerance of a child's right to make an error. . . the role of the teacher is to rpovide the child an opportunity to test and retest the concept" (Rathbone, 1970, p. 128). A climate that accepts mistakes is essential not only for the cognitive growth of the child but also for his social development;

> . . . if a child is learning the intricacies of social interaction the activity in which he is experiencing or practicing the interaction must allow him to make many mistakes without endangering the lives or future of those around him, to say nothing of his own safety (Moore and Anderson, 1969, p. 575 quoted in Eisman, p. 78).

Humaneness: Summary

The integrated day teacher established his authority through the competence and confidence he brings to his relationship with children. He sets limits and maintains standards without being arbitrary. This stems from his helping the

children learn how to set their own limits and standards. Humaneness is also a result of seeing education as a social process where the teacher assumes responsibility for the development of a sense of community. He is conscious of the need for this development and plans for it.

The teacher recognizes and respects the children's individuality and uniqueness by accepting a wide range of responses and initiatives. He has a developmental perspective and accepts a child's work as a legitimate expression of his 'self' - not merely as something indicative of growth along a developmental path.

The teacher trusts and has confidence in children (people). He cares for the children without being possessive and without creating dependence. The help he gives the child in his struggle and desire to understand and control his world fosters a trusting and open relationship. This relationship is further enhanced by the teacher's ability to admit mistakes, to see both his own and the child's mistakes as a source of further learning. Finally, the teacher has the humility and patience to see the erratic nature of the child's development for what it is and not as a source of discouragement.

Instruction - Guidance and extension of learning

> (I6) The teacher keeps in mind long-term goals for her children which inform her guidance and extension of a child's involvement in his chosen activity.

This characteristic includes three areas to which we must address ourselves. First, it implies that the teacher has long-term goals for his children.

Second, it suggests that he can relate specific observations and interventions to these goals. Third, it assumes that alternatives exist within which the child's activity is self-chosen. We will postpone our examination of providing alternatives and encouraging choice which will be dealt with under the theme "provisioning" and later in this theme under characteristic 17 respectively.

Making the assumption that meaningful choices do exist in the child's school learning environment Hawkins addresses the relationship between the goals, intervention and choice.

> When you give a child a range from which to make choices, he then gives you the basis for deciding what should be done next, what further opportunities you should give him - materials and suggestions that are responsive to his earlier choices and that may amplify their meaning and deepen his involvement. That is your decision. It's dependent on your goals, it's something you are responsible for - not in an authoritarian way but you do have to make a decision, and it's your decision, not the child's. If it's a decision to let him alone, you are just as responsible as if it's a decision to intervene (in Rathbone, 1971, p. 91).

That the teacher has goals does not mean that he cannot be responsive to the child's initiatives and interests as is often used to argue against thinking clearly about long range goals. But the argument is specious. It is a straw man that needs to be seen as just that. Rathbone argues this point.

> It is perfectly possible to maintain rather fixed ultimate goals while at the same time including considerable daily flexibility with regards to short-term objectives. Thus a teacher might have very definite expectations concerning a student's learning of mathematics, yet not be willing to press for any particular yearly, or monthly or daily 'mathematics

schedule' for any given child (Rathbone, 1970, p. 51).

Having goals, as suggested by Hawkins, provides a framework within which the teacher makes short-term decisions to intervene or abstain. Goals also guide the teacher's decisions in terms of curricular balance. Dearden, wary of the tendency towards child-centeredness which disinclines one to maintain goals, asks, "As is often said, it is characteristic of child-centered theories to be 'strong on methods, weak on aims.' Which new interests is the teacher to stimulate, or selectively to encourage? Which basic skills are to be harnessed to existing interests?" (Dearden, 1969, p. 24).

Goals do not derive from arbitrary definition, nor are they collected from lists. They must reflect the teacher's understanding of experience, of the relationship between child and society. In this case, only, can goals serve the teacher in fulfillment of his responsibility.

On a less general level, we must look at goals in terms of the disciplines and how these relate to young children's learning activities. The teacher's decisions must help the child's movement towards an understanding of the disciplines without violating the integrity of experience for the child. "To appreciate the existence of subject areas, their similarities and differences is an adult activity, but that is what children are working towards, and their first efforts should be marked by clarity and confidence" (Brearley, p. 168).

The subject matter may well be a part of a teacher's long-term goals. They do, after all, reflect in some degree his way of seeing. As Brearley has suggested, the teacher wants to insure that the child's beginnings are "marked

by. . . confidence." He can only do this if he responds to the child and his world as he sees it. "We do not begin with a list of subjects, but rather with the child's relationship to his world" (Marsh, 1970, p. 7).

> (I2) The teacher plans instruction individually and pragmatically; she becomes actively involved in the work of the child as one who seeks to help him realize his goals and potential.
>
> (I9) Activities arise from children's interests and response to materials and are not prescribed or constrained by predetermined curricula.

Brown and Precious suggest a goal that provides a meaningful context for our examination of the above characteristics. They write, "Each child's day needs to be made a whole and the whole of that day used" (1970, p. 35). This requires pragmatic planning for each child. It must include decisions about materials, working conditions and timing. Essentially we are talking about individualizing, personalizing instruction. This does not just happen. Flexibility is a necessary but not sufficient condition. "The artist-teacher frequently changes his plans to fit the interests and needs of his children. That he shifts his plan is important, but that he has a plan to shift is more fundamental" (Woffard, in Gardner and Cass, 1965, p. 14). We would extend this and say it is further essential that the teacher plans to shift, that he be ready to shift.

Planning starts with a response, the teacher's response to the child. Ginsburg and Opper conclude their explication of Piaget's theory with suggested

implications of his work for education. Some of their conclusions are related to how a teacher responds to a child. They write,

> What the educator needs to do is to try to improve his capacity to watch and listen, and to place himself in the distinctive perspective of the child. . . What is needed chiefly is a considerable sensitivity - a willingness to learn from the child, to look closely at his actions and to avoid the assumption that what is true or customary for the adult is also true for the child. The educator needs to interact with the child in a flexible way in order to gain insight into the latter's current level of functioning (p. 220 emphasis added).

This watching and listening is central to the teacher's role but does not suggest a passive role. The teacher is an active participant observer. He works alongside the child and becomes involved himself. Objectivity is not the goal; on the contrary, the teacher studies for a very subjective view. In this way he becomes "aware of and uses the child's questions and the child's purposes" (Weber, 1971, p. 183).

In the previous section we discussed goals and their relationship to the decisions a teacher makes. This relationship is obviously a part of the planning process. We can look at this with respect to skill development as a goal. The teacher must make sure that his concern for skills does not blind him to the child's purposes. Raoul cautions, "as much as possible, children should be taught skills to solve problems they have initiated and not as ends in themselves. As teachers we have to become more skilled in watching what the child is doing, in talking with him about it, before dashing in with the needed skill"

(Raoul, quoted in Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. A-23). Weber sets this in a wider context saying, "the teacher implements not directs - aiming to give the children the chance to achieve the fullest involvement that comes through pursuit of their own purposes and questions and choices" (1971, p. 133). Thus, the teacher plans skill development in response to the activities, questions, problems and conversations of children, not vice versa.

Let us now look at planning vis-a-vis predetermined curricula. Brearley writes, "It has been said that knowledge is universal but learning is personal" (1970, p. 61). Predetermined curricula, like knowledge, is unrelated to any particular child's learning, and therefore without any inherent value for him. To separate the curriculum from the child defeats both. "It is not the subject per se that is educative or that is conducive to growth. There is no subject that is in and of itself or without regard to the stage of growth attained by the learner, such that inherent educational value can be attributed to it" (Dewey, 1938, p. 46). Through planning the teacher wants to make available activities which make it possible for the individual child's learning to take on a public, shared dimension. In this way knowledge takes on value because it is connected to learning. Predetermined curricula, unconnected to the child's purposes are vacuous since they speak to knowledge and not learning. Again, this is not to say that the teacher does not have goals or even objectives, however, they must be goals and objectives personally held for specific individuals.

(I4) The teacher uses the child's interaction with materials, equipment and his environment as the basis of her instruction.

In an earlier theme we spoke at length about the teacher and child as active agents. We will now look at the relationship between the child's interaction with his environment and the teacher's instruction vis-a-vis the idea of active agency. We will look first at the child's activity to see what its implications are for the teacher. Both Brearley and Dewey emphasize the child's natural impulsion to learn and be active. Brearley says, "The mental processes involved in the search for knowledge and understanding contain their own self-expanding and extending propulsion" (1970, p. 159). Dewey concurs, and draws implications for the teacher.

> The child is already intensely active, and the question of education is the question of taking hold of his activities, of giving them direction. Through direction, through organized use, they tend toward valuable results, instead of scattering or being left to merely impulsive expression (In Dworkin 1959, p. 54 emphasis added).

The teacher's role portrayed here is neither one of pouring in nor of drawing out, but of taking hold. The teachers seizes on the activity of the child and extends it.

Before leaving this focus on the active child, there is a prior question which we must address. The teacher has a prior responsibility. He must create the environment in which the child is active and in which the child can see himself as active.

> A child can be the active agent only in the free situation. The free situation allows the expectancies of a child to interact with reality. He finds discrepancies and makes corrections. A child must find a solution to the problem he was searching to understand, a solution that makes sense of the observation he has made" (Weber, 1971, pp. 183-184).

At this point, we can see the teacher's instructional role as two-fold. He must create an environment responsive to the interests of his children and expectant of their initiative, and he must grasp hold of their interactions with this environment, extending them in directions of educational worth. Or, as Plowden has said, the role of the teacher is "to lead from behind" (1967, p. 311).

> (I3) The teacher gives diagnostic attention to the particular child and the specific activities in which he is involved before suggesting any change, extension, or redirection of activity.

In discussing this characteristic we are concerned with diagnosis as it relates to the teacher's posture toward the learner, especially in terms of his intervention into his activities. A much closer look at the specific competencies involved in diagnosis will be treated in a separate theme.

Rousseau admonished educators, "Be simple and hold yourself in check, you zealous teachers. Never be in a hurry to act. So far as you can, refrain from a good instruction for fear of giving a bad one" (in Walberg and Thomas, 1971, p. A-22). What, if anything, does a particular child need at a given moment to complete the process he is engaged in? Before the teacher answers this he must first determine the consequences of even approaching the child.

Will it be helpful or disruptive? If he needs help, what form should it take? A probe? A question? An answer? A suggestion? Encouragement? Materials? A partner? If a particular concept is involved, is the child just attaining it? If so, further experiences with that concept may help him to consolidate his grasp. Or is he ready to move on? Is his activity something others could benefit from? Would he benefit from sharing?

Intervention is a subtle process through which the teacher demonstrates respect for the child and his activity. By first questioning why and how he might intervene, the teacher moves a long way toward providing the child with the time and space, both physical and psychological, which must accompany the content of the learning environment if the child is going to move toward greater and greater autonomy.

> (I5) The teacher avoids whole class assignments, instead amplifies and extends the possibilities of activities children have chosen through conversation, introduction of related materials, direct instruction when warranted, and assignments appropriate to individual needs.

John Dewey postulates two criteria for valuing experience. The first of these is "interaction" or what we might call involvement, the child as agent. The other criteria is "continuity." This refers to the relationship of a particular experience to other experiences, the teacher as agent. Does a particular experience open the way for future involvement? Does it increase the possibilities for interaction or involvement? Does it lead to control over

these experiences? The teacher provides the guidance and extension necessary to ensure continuity in the child's interactions (Dewey, Experience and Education 1938, Chapter 3). With interaction and continuity as a frame of reference we can more productively examine the above characteristic.

The teacher must be aware that the driving force behind a child's learning is his involvement, not the teacher's prepared plans or dominating influence. But, the teacher must provide the necessary help in bringing continuity to the child's engagement. He must see possibilities which the child does not see. Several authors lay great stress on this aspect of the teacher's role.

> The point is that the child does not always see what is relevant, he has to be shown. Attention has to be drawn to one thing and diverted from another, new experiences have to be introduced and interest has to be aroused, yet there is the assumption behind some teaching that physical presence in a situation is sufficient for learning. . . if children do not ask questions about the natural happenings in their environment, the teacher must stimulate and provoke them to do so (Lloyd, in Walton, 1971, p. 27).

Thelen suggests a similar role while at the same time portraying the teacher-child relationship within a problem-solving situation. He says,

> The teacher attempts to understand the problem as they are seen by the children, and he helps them deal with these problems by helping them take into account the factors of which they are unaware, and by redefining the task in such a way that they can deal with it (Thelen, 1954, p. 66).

Thus, the teacher first must be able to see the problem through the

child's eyes and then based upon his own experience and understanding and guided by his long-term goals, he redescribes the situation for the child. This intervention is not confining. On the contrary, it aids the child in refocusing by posing alternatives which the child does not see without help. The redescribing is offered "as a general guide to some possibilities, not as a limitation on what can be done" (Kallet, in Rathbone, 1971, p. 79).

The teacher's function is to open up possibilities, not to narrow them. The teacher's own range of experience if employed as a prescription might easily fall outside of a child's interest. "The teacher's crucial role is to put further questions and to draw attention to factors hitherto overlooked, but yet within the comprehension of the children. This is frequently a matter of delicate judgement" (Brearley, 1970, p. 32). Similar caution must be exercised in balancing long term goals against short term interests. The child lives very much in the present. Any effort to force his learning experiences into a preparation for the future perspective could easily destroy their value for him. Dearden speaks to this.

> An education which looks only to the future, and which sees no value in present experience except as a preparation for that future is therefore not something which a child can be expected to embrace. Moreover, since he will see no value in what he is now required to do, it will not even succeed in the purpose of preparation, but will remain something isolated in his mind and thoroughly disliked. It will engender as a collateral learning, attitudes of resistance which alienate him from any desire to go on learning once the pressures of imposition from outside are relaxed (1969, p. 38).

All too often skill development has been treated very much as a preparation for the future with little concern given to the meaningfulness of the present experience to the individual child. Weber reflects this same concern while addressing herself to the teaching of reading skills. "The teacher considers that discrete skills taught outside the context of interest and need could result in early attrition of the desire to read and therefore in little use of reading skills" (p. 217). Since discrete skills, void of a context meaningful to the learner, violate the criteria of interaction, neither interaction nor continuity is served, and thus, with Dewey, we would argue that the experience is of little educational value.

It is worth clarifying that continuity is not served in the above case since continuity depends upon interaction, upon the learner's prior engagement. The curriculum, much less the contents of any texts, hardly provides continuity in and of itself. It may help the teacher in providing for continuity, but as stated above continuity assumes prior involvement on the part of the learner.

Before we examine further specific implications of Dewey's criteria of interaction and continuity, we should clarify an important distinction as to what is of value in an experience. Dearden speaks to this.

> Dewey does not say, of course, that what children find valuable in learning must be precisely what we know to be valuable in it. He is only saying they must see some value in it. . . Sympathetic understanding will enable the teacher to appreciate what his children find valuable: only his maturity and greater experience will enable him to secure the instrumental value of continuity (1969, p. 39).

Through extending the child's activities and interests the teacher sccures "the instrumental value of continuity." Without this extension, the child's activity will all too frequently remain a matter of facination with process and will not result in intellectual growth. An actual classroom incident will serve to illustrate this point. This particular incident is a dramatic example of a failure to extend what seemed to be a highly engaging and worthwhile learning situation. Two ten-eleven year old boys were working with a bunson burner, a test tube and some chemicals. They would heat the chemical to a certain point and then light a match over the test tube igniting the fumes and producing a torch. Asked what they were doing, they replied, "Oh, we're making a torch!" Further inquiry about how they produced the flame evoked a simple description of what they were doing. When asked how much of each chemical they had in the test tube, they said, "Oh, a little of this, and a little of that." Further inquiry made clear that they had little understanding of <u>why</u> they were able to do what they were doing. But they were highly engaged. At this point two other pairs of boys came over and took to doing the same thing. Shortly after this, the teacher severely reprimanded the boys for their activity, indicating that they had done this same 'experiment' time and again. They had repeated and repeated the process of making the torch. The teacher told them she did not want them doing it any more.

What we have here is a learning situation in which the children are highly engaged, where <u>they</u> obviously feel value in what they are doing, to the extent

that the learning activity of one pair of boys is contagious in attracting other pairs of boys to the same thing. Unfortunately the teacher failed to seize upon this interest of the children, to extend it, to see the educationally valuable potential that existed. What would happen if they tried the same experiment leaving out one of the chemicals? What would happen if they dramatically altered the proportions of the ingredients? What might they find out about the general properties of the ingredients? Where could they find this out?

The teacher might have made readily available some resource materials which would have aided the children in extending their activity. Yet, without the extension of this activity, it becomes and remains rather meaningless in terms of long range educational goals, in terms of achieving the instrumental value of continuity, even though it has high value to the child as indicated by his strong engagement.

With this distinction in mind, we will return to the problem of teaching skill development. We have already examined the weakness of teaching skills as discrete entities outside the context of the child's interests. As an alternative, Weber suggests that the teacher provide and extend activities which foster skills, but activities that are freely self-chosen by the child (1971, p. 65). Focusing more specifically on language development, Brearley makes the same point. "Discussion, question, comment provide opportunities for a teacher to give accurate language appropriate to the level of understanding reached by a child and can promote further thinking" (1970, p. 98). Within the

child's self-chosen activities the teacher functions as a participant-observer, supplying key words a child needs to organize his thoughts. "Once the child has acted upon an object or situation, language can then serve as a major tool to internalize the experience into a compact category of experience" (Ginzburg and Opper, 1969, p. 228). The teacher also takes into account the fact that language is dependent upon a width and depth of experience. For the very young child he sees talking with him about what he is doing as preparation for reading (Weber, 1971, p. 30). He sees this as preparation, as a way of extending his present experience and helping him to open up greater possibilities for future experience. For the child, it is essential that these interventions have a value of the moment, for what he is doing right now.

The extension of activities must include the extension and broadening of interests; "the teacher has an important function to perform in stimulating new interests, and in seeing that activity does not simply confine itself to an already gained repertoire of knowledge and skill" (Dearden, 1969, p. 22). This broadening of interests in turn serves to broaden the possibilities within which the child will likely become engaged (find value) and thus facilitates the teacher's efforts to provide continuity.

(I7) The teacher encourages children's independence and exercise of real choice.

This characteristic extends the above discussion of Dewey's criteria of interaction and continuity. As we stated above, continuity means not only the

opening up of more and richer possibilities of experience, but it also includes the individual's gaining greater control over his experience. This is pointed to by Dearden when he suggests that successful teaching leads to "independence of the teacher" which in turn means that "more and more valuable self-direction become possible" (1969, p. 129).

The child's independence and exercise of real choice is an essential part of his being an agent. We already examined in some depth Gooding's characteristics of effective teachers which underlie the teacher's encouragement of the child's agency. We also looked at the concept of agency itself. Here it will suffice to extend this concept, to see how the teacher helps the child see himself as an agent. Several authors (Hawkins, Walberg and Thomas, Dearden, Dewey, and Weber) view the teacher's responsibility as being one of creating a free situation in which the child is allowed independence and real choice. To cite only one, Weber writes,

> The school must allow a child to be an active agent. . . A necessity for a child's future growth, in fact, is that he be allowed decision and responsibility so that he conceive of himself as active agent in his own learning and growth, experiencing the outcome and integrating the fruits and consequences of his choices (1971, p. 183-184).

In contrast to this, Rathbone takes the teacher's role one step further.

> To the proponent of open education who holds each child to be an agent, much of the job of teaching entails trying to convince the child to see himself from that same perspective (1971, p. 112 emphasis added).

The teacher can not just stand back and let the child be an active agent. It is not even enough to provide an responsive environment. Active agency is not an inevitable outgrowth of a free and rich environment, but rather a central goal towards which we help the child move. Part of the teacher's responsibility must include helping the child conceive of himself as an active agent. This of course goes hand in hand with the provision of a free situation in which he can be an active agent. The point to be emphasized here is that the teacher is concerned with the child's agency not only in terms of his actions but in terms of his self-perception as well.

Barth suggests a self questioning process for the teacher applicable to the above discussion.

> When a child asks for help, the teacher can encourage independence by asking himself a series of difficult questions: Is this child really asking for help by what he is doing?" "Does this child really need help?" "What will happen if he doesn't get help from me?" "If he needs help is it in his best interest for me to provide it, or can he get it from some other source?" (Barth, 1970, p. 105).

In light of our above discussion, we would emphasize that the teacher must ask himself these questions not only in terms of what the child is doing but also in terms of how he sees himself.

(I1) The teacher gives individual children small concentrated amounts of time rather than giving her general attention to the children as a class all day.

Lauren Resnick of the University of Pittsburgh undertook a study (1971) in which she systematically described the behavior of teachers in informal or open classrooms. Her findings support and elaborate the characteristic we are presently examining. She found a general pattern of teacher behavior consisting of "extended substantive conversations with one or a small group of children interspersed with very brief interactions, frequently initiated by children" (p. 4). There was a "tendency toward a high degree of child initiation for brief interactions, while teachers generally ninitiate more of the extended interactions" (p. 5).

Resnick estimates on the basis of her data that "the teacher could speak at least briefly with every child in a class of 40 once every 20 minutes, if she distributed her attention fairly evenly among the children present" (pp. 5-6).[4] This is particularly significant because as Webb points out, "it should. . . be remembered that two to three minutes of planned concentrated and systematic instruction to a small group is of far greater value than half an hour's class instruction which may well be at the understanding level of only one or two children" (p. 26).

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[4]Resnick only hypothetically suggests this even distribution of attention in order to emphasize the extent to which the teachers she observed were able to get around to all the children. Resnick did not, nor would we, suggest that the teacher should strive to distribute her attention evenly in the quantitative sense used above.

Resnick concludes from her study, that

> Although there are many educational influences in the classroom - particularly in an informal and individualized classroom - it seems likely that the quantity and quality of teacher attention is a powerful variable in accounting for a child's response to school and to learning task (p. 6).

Resnick studied the quality as well as the quantity of the teacher's interactions with her children. Her findings, in terms of the quality of teacher interactions, are as important as those regarding quantity. She says,

> The most striking feature. . . is the high percentage of questions directed by the teacher to the child. . . Of these questions, the vast majority are substantive in nature. That is, they are questions related to the content of the task the child is working on (p. 7 emphasis added).

She also comments on the significance of what she called "management questions" concerned with how activities would be carried out and exactly what would be worked on by the child. It is significant that she found it necessary to differentiate between "management questions" and direct instruction. She concludes her discussion of classroom management, saying, "the use of questions as a means of fulfilling the management functions of the classroom. . . contributes to a sense that children must make choices - and commitments - concerning both the content and the manner of their work" (p. 13).

As noted above, frequency of contact with different children is very high. Implicit here is an ability on the teacher's part to be highly mobile. He must be able to glance at a child or hear a phrase and know whether and how he should intervene. This ability to move around and still maintain substantive

interactions is crucial. It requires having a sense of the flow of activities in addition to knowing the children well enough to be able to intuitively know when to get back to a particular child in order to be able to extend the purposefulness of his work and prevent a dissipation of energy and focus.

(I8) The approach to learning is interdisciplinary; e.g., the child is not expected to confine himself to a single subject such as mathematics when learning.

The point to be made here is not that the disciplines have no value, but that the disciplines, as boundaries, should not block a child's activity. One of the cornerstones of open education, The Plowden Report, makes this point quite emphatically.

> Rigid division of the curriculum into subjects tends to interrupt children's trains of thought and of interest and to hinder them from realizing the common elements in problem solving. These are among the many reasons why some work, at least, should cut across subject divisions at all stages in the primary school (1967, p. 197).

Dewey compares the subjects to a map, a map for the teacher to use in guiding the child's personal experience. This map can never substitute for experience:

> But the map, a summary, an arranged and orderly view of previous experiences, serves as a guide to future experience; it gives direction; it facilitates control; it economizes effort, preventing useless wandering and pointing out paths which lead most quickly and most certainly to a desired point (Dewey in Dworkin, 1959, p. 103).

It bears repeating that the map cannot serve as a substitute for experience. Further, the map is not for the child but for the teacher. Dewey, bringing to a close his essay, "The Child and the Curriculum", asks, "How, then, stands the case of Child vs. Curriculum: What shall the verdict be?" He answers, not without eloquence,

> The radical fallacy is the original pleadings with which we set out is the supposition that we have no choice save either to leave the child to his own unguided spontaneity or to inspire direction upon him from without. Action is response; it is adaptation, adjustment. There is no such thing as sheer self-activity possible - because all activity takes place in a medium, in a situation and with reference to its conditions. But, again, no such thing as imposition of truth from without, as insertion of truth from without, is possible. All depends upon the activity which the mind itself undergoes in responding to what is presented from without. Now, the value of the formulated wealth of knowledge that makes up the course of study is that it may enable the educator to determine the environment of the child, and thus by indirection to direct. Its primary value, its primary indication, is for the teacher, not for the child. It says to the teacher: Such and such are capacities, the fulfillments, in truth and beauty and behavior, open to these children. Now see to it that day by day the conditions are such that their own activities move inevitable in this direction, toward such culmination of themselves (Dewey, in WDworkin, 1959, pp. 110-111).

To return to our original point, the disciplines are important. A child should come to understand what differentiates science from mathematics and these from art. But, this is an altogether different matter from confining children to arbitrary subject matter for arbitrary lengths of time., e.g., isolating reading and expression from the rest of the child's learning experience

into a fifty minute block of time. Furthermore, as Plowden suggested above, the child should be provided with opportunities for interdisciplinary work so that he can realize the commonalities of problem solving and creativity in all areas. Actually the child's own method is interdisciplinary because his world is still of a whole: "adults are. . . concerned with elaborate schemes for integrating a situation that is, from the child's point of view, already integrated" (Marsh, 1970, p. 7). The teacher cannot take hold of the child's activity if he denies its interdisciplinary nature.

Instruction - Guidance and Extension of Learning: Summary

The teacher has long-term goals which guide her daily, even moment to moment, decision-making and intervention. Part of these goals relate to the subject area disciplines. These are after all the way in which the teacher sees his world and are perspectives toward which he leads the children. The teacher's goals provide a framework. Within this, planning for day to day operations starts with the teacher's response to the child and his interaction with the environment. In responding to a particular child he may develop specific objectives for that child which facilitate gathering into focus what might otherwise be diffuse and unconnected efforts by the child. The teacher's response to the child is further evidenced in his provisioning of the environment according to the child's interests and needs. This in turn promotes further response from the child. Thus, a symbiotic give and take exists between the teacher's re-

sponsiveness to the child and his interactions with the environment he has provided.

Before intervening in a child's activities the teacher diagnoses what he is doing and what he might do or not do to extend his efforts and interests. This first involves seeing what he is doing from his perspective, seeing what his questions and purposes are. Only then does the teacher seek possibilities for extension.

Since the child's mode of work is interdisciplinary, the teacher allows children to pursue their work unimpeded by subject area boundaries or time-tables. This is not to say that the teacher does not involve the child in math, language, science or art. He does indeed extend his work in these directions. But, if the child's initiatives in an activity take him across subject or time boundaries, then these adult boundaries give way to the child's purposes.

The teacher actively fosters the child's own sense of agency by providing for the exercise of real choice. This is accomplished through the actual provision of alternatives in terms of activities, but also by the active encouragement of the child to see himself as an active agent, to see himself as a decision-maker, to involve him in self-evaluation. In order to be responsive to the children's needs the teacher must be highly mobile and must make efficient use of his time, pausing only a moment here to see how this child is doing, making note to get back to him, while sensing that across the room another child needs help now. The rhythm of work and the flow of the children's interactions

determine the time table and how and where the teacher deploys himself.

Provisioning for Learning: Introduction

Lillian Weber, in her recent book The English Infant School and Informal Education, makes a statement that speaks to the very essence of the theme 'Provisioning for Learning.' She writes,

> The use of the concrete in informal education does not exist in a vacuum. The whole is a child learning not only in encounter with the concrete environment, but also in interaction, and in discussion of his experiences, with adults and with other children. Indeed the freer organization of informal education allows more discussion, more mesh with a child, more help to a child in extension of his learnings and thinking (1971, p. 202).

This is what we will be examining in the theme 'Provisioning,' not just what and how a teacher provides for a rich and exciting physical environment, but what she brings to this physical environment to create a learning environment characterized by freedom and by responsiveness to the child.

(P1) Manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range with little replication, i.e., not class sets, and children work directly with them.

(P2) Books are supplied in diversity and profusion, including reference books, children's literature, and "books" written by the students.

One of the problems which many school administrators frequently foresee related to moving in the direction of an integrated day approach is an exhorbitant outlay of monies for materials. But, as the above two characteristics (and the

next) emphasize, this is not necessarily the case. One point to be underscored in the above characteristics is that there needs to be little replication of materials. Sets of twenty-five or even thirty are unnecessary, in fact, they pose a major storage problem: they take up much needed space. This applies to both manipulative materials and books. It also applies to desks (this will be looked at in greater detail under characteristic P8).

A diversity and range of materials are important in several ways. Brearley suggests two, "accurate generalizations are more likely to be made as a result of experience with a wide variety of materials and objects" and "a wide range of materials and situations is also necessary in view of the personal nature of learning" (1970, p. 96). There is no one book or material which will be helpful to all individual learners. A third reason for a rich supply of materials is suggested by Abercrombie who writes that experiments show "that normal intelligent behavior requires a constantly varied sensory input; the brain works properly only if it is kept continually 'wound up'" (Ambercrombie, 1969, p. 66 - experiments cited).

There is also need to consider the rationing of materials. The availability of too many materials can be as obstructive to learning as can too few. Too many materials can overwhelm the child and encourage superficial testing of materials without getting seriously involved. It is important to distinguish between a necessary abundance of materials and their rationing. By rationing we mean the selection of a limited amount of material to be focused upon at any

one moment in the classroom. A wealth of materials may be accessible, but this is very different from those materials the teacher has carefully and thoughtfully brought out and made a place for. Thus, the teacher focuses on certain materials at any given time by limiting the amount of materials that are openly placed in a given area. It is crucial that the teacher develop what Brown and Precious refer to as the discipline of limiting. This limiting involves a process of selection, as mentioned above. An extension of this is what Brearley refers to as a principle of relevancy. This refers to changing the learning environment (particularly in terms of the provisioning of materials) in response to the specific needs of individual children.

We will now move on to focus more specifically on the provision of books. Brearley speaks to this and to the climate that needs to be provided along with the books. She says, "the most satisfying learning situations exist in schools where books are an essential and integral part of the environment, where teachers naturally and frequently refer to books themselves and share them with the children" (1970, p. 61). This quite obviously extends our earlier discussion of the teacher as learner (under the theme seeking) and as such as model. Besides establishing a climate conducive to reading, the teacher must provide a wealth of reading material. Webb offers a practical and rather comprehensive list of the kinds of books which are minimally necessary. Books

> (i) made by the children themselves, as these are the most meaningful of all; subjects might be "A Book About Me," "Our Hamster," "We Went to the Station," etc.

(ii) library books at many grades of difficulty in an attractive book-corner, freely available to all children at any time, and used by the teacher to read and tell stories.

(iii) books made by the teacher, using the best illustrations she can find (color supplements, photography in specialist magazines, post cards from museums, art galleries, etc., yield good material) and setting high standards of lay-out, subject matter and lettering; these can often meet current interests in a way no other book can.

(iv) primers (Webb, 1969, p. 47).

We would add to this, the provision of reference materials including books and texts at several levels and inclusive of a wide range of interests. It is further essential that the local environment including the home be tapped for reading material such as comics, newspapers, magazines, and directions and instructions. This brings us to our next characteristic.

(P3) The environment includes materials developed by the teacher and children and common environmental materials (plant life, rocks, sand, water, pets, egg cartons, plastic bottles, etc.).

It may well be that the teacher competencies implied by this characteristic are as crucial as any we will look at. Integrated day educators frequently refer to the "quality of resourcefulness requisite to working". We will elaborate on two aspects of this quality of resourcefulness. One is the ability to scrounge. The other is the ability to develop and adapt materials.

Matthai, says in an evaluation of four month long, residential workshops on the integrated day, "some part of each workshop should be devoted to work with a scrounger, someone who has skills and practice at devising useful

classroom materials from cheap, easily obtainable objects" (Matthai, 1970, p. 16). A scrounger fits Dewey's description of the teacher as someone who who knows and can take advantage of local resources. In order to scrounge, one must be able to see the local environment as a resource. Brearley elaborates on the resources available,

> There is an enormous volume of "odd" material to be found and many sources of supply of industrial waste. Every environment can supply vast quantities of natural objects animate and inaimate and the contents of junk shops and attics can supply numerous objects of historical interest as well as discarded electrical or mechanical equipment for investigation, (1970, p. 183).

As the teacher models competence as a scrounger, the children will pick this up, bringing a veritable deluge of materials from the home and local area.

Weber speaks of the teacher creating a "learning environment which is characterized by immediacy, relevancy and a glowing quality" (1971, p. 105). Dewey adds, "Anything which can be called a study, whether arithmetic, history, geography, or one of the natural sciences, must be derived from materials, which at the outset fall within the scope of ordinary life-experience" (1938, p. 73). Material developed by the teacher and children or scrounged from the local environment take on the qualities of immediacy and relevancy and combine with the child's curiosity and exploratory drives to create a situation in which the teacher can be instrumental in extending the activities and purposes <u>of the child</u>. We might elaborate on the other characteristic of the learning environment mentioned by Weber, namely, its <u>glowing</u> quality.

The classroom should feel like a magnet, even a very special kind of magnet which has several clearly differentiated fields of attraction which draw you in. To do this, much careful and thoughtful attention must be given to two things. One, areas of the classroom must be clearly defined with a specific focus of activities and materials. And, two, there needs to be a high aesthetic standard maintained in products, organization and display which make up the environment.

Limiting materials to less than whole class sets as suggested earlier does not imply the exclusion of commercial materials including texts, workbooks and programmed materials. They too can be useful as a resource both for teacher and child. At the same time, Armington raises an important concern with regard to the use of commercial materials. "When commercial materials and programs are used they must be made available in ways that protect the children's responsibility for their own learning" (Armington, p. 9). The concern here is twofold: first, the linear nature of most commercial materials, and second, the use of materials in such a way that there is little or no room for decision making on the part of the learner. Most teacher manuals assume that children will work in groups, that there is a specific sequence of learning steps that all the children will go through and, too frequently, all at the same time. Manuals allow for little choice or decision making on the learner's part. They assume a preponderance of teacher direction and pupil passivity. Therefore, teacher's manuals must be used with caution, keeping individual children's needs in mind.

In addition to scrounging we touched upon the other quality which makes up resourcefulness, namely, the ability to develop and adapt materials to the particular needs of individual children. This ability can be seen as competence in what we might call ad hoc curriculum development. It involves taking anything, commercial materials, junk, and so on, and adapting it to the children's use.

We referred earlier to an article by Hans Otto Storm entitled "Eolithism and Design." Storm discusses craftsmanship and various bases upon which it can exist. Two of these are of interest to us as we look at the teacher in the process of ad hoc curriculum development. One is the relatively modern design process which most of us probably take for granted as being universal. The other Storm labels 'eolithic' after eoliths which are pieces of junk remaining from the Stone Age. Before looking at Storm's thoughts on "Eolithism and Design" in greater detail, it is worth noting that Bussis and Chittenden refer to a "craft-component" both in relationship to the teacher provisioning the classroom and in relationship to the EDC advisors work with teachers. Thus, Storm's thoughts on design and craftsmanship are quite relevant to our purposes. Storm says of the method of design and its relationship to craftsmanship,

> It presumes that the workman knows approximately what he wants. This being so, there is selected for the material of the structure, a medium whose properties are known and preferably, uniform. This certainty and uniformity of the material are extremely important - they affect not only the geometrical result of good designing, but they also affect the mental discipline which the process demands. . . The finished article

> has a universally recognizable appearance - though it may be thoroughly useless (design proper does not interest itself in this) it will in every case have an internal consistency, a certain "finish," and an arrangement which is, in the highest sense of the word, orderly (Storm, p. 37).

Storm contrasts this with what he calls the eolithic form of craftsmanship.

> Eoliths are pieces of junk remaining from the Stone Age. . . They have been defined, aptly, as "stones, picked up and used by man, and even fashioned a little for his use." The important item of the definition from the point of view of method of craftsmanship, and the one which distinguishes the eolithic method fundamentally from that of design, is that the stones were picked up, that is to say, in a form already tolerably well adapted to the end in view and, more important, strongly suggestive of the end in view. We may imagine that person whom the anthropologists describe so formidably by the name of man strolling along in the stone-field. . . when his eye lights by chance upon a stone just possibly suitable for a spear-head. That instant the project of the spear originated; the stone is picked up; the spear is, to use a modern term, in manufacture. Not only do the shaft and the thongs remain vaguely in the background, as something which will in its due time no doubt be thought of, but the very need and usefulness of the spear are in a way subsidiary to that instant's finding. And if, further, the spear-head, during the small amount of fashioning that is its lot, goes as a spearhead altogether wrong, then there remains always the quick possibility of diverting it to some other use which may suggest itself.
>
> To sharpen the contrast, let us remember the basic requirement of the designing workman - he must know what he wants. He must, furthermore, before ever the design begins, decide on his material - steel and stone if it is to be a bridge, paper and printer's ink if it is to be the sale of breakfast food. The astute fashioner of eoliths, on the other hand, must have a continually open mind about materials, and he must also be open to reason and particularly to speedy adaptation in the matter of what he wants. He must have a dilettante mind - in the education of a competent eolithologist, nothing is so harmful as over-specialization (pp. 38-39).

And, a final thought on eolithism and the modern world;

> . . . when it comes to eolithic craftsmanship, the citizen of a sophisticated culture is at a disadvantage even beside the barbarian, in that the supply of genuine and natural eoliths has been used up - so that he is obliged to pick up and adapt what is already a second-hand product (p. 42).

Storm's differentiation between a craftsmanship based upon the design method and one based upon 'eolithism' highlights a fundamental difference in the competence required of an integrated day teacher and one working in a traditional approach. Teaching by the text, or teaching through programmed materials, is analogous to the design method of craftsmanship. The analogy encompasses behavioral objectives and the mental discipline they demand. There is a prescribed goal and a specific material or materials to be used in attaining that goal. The materials are usually not highly flexible and therefore to a large extent determine the specific process involved in attaining the goal.

A good scrounger on the other hand, must have a least a bit of 'eolithism' in him; all the more so since we live in a culture virtually devoid of eoliths and hence our scroungers are "obliged to pick up and adapt what is already a second-hand product." But without this, our classrooms even though generously supplied with the most expensive of commercial materials will never take on more than "a certain finish," a quality which must fall far short of achieving the mesh between school and the child's life of which Dewey and Weber speak so forcefully.

(P4) Materials are readily accessible to children.

This characteristic is deceptively straight forward; in fact there are three aspects of availability to which we must address ourselves. Most obviously, the materials have to be accessible in a physical sense. They must be stored in such a way, that for the most part, any child can get what he needs without having to bother the teacher. A second aspect of accessibility, is that, the child must know where things are. Materials, and their storage spaces, should be clearly labeled. If there are routines involved these need to be made clear, including the returning of materials and cleaning up. The third aspect is psychological. There must be, in Weber's phrase, an immediacy and relevancy to the materials, so that the child sees them as a vital part of his learning environment, not just as enrichment materials. For this to occur, the teacher too must see materials as vital to the child's learning. She must value them. With this attitude, materials will be used and cared for.

(P5) The teacher gradually modifies the content and arrangement of the classroom based upon diagnosis and evaluation of the children's needs and interests and their use of materials and space.

Along with the ability to scrounge, this characteristic is probably the most important aspect of provisioning. It is an extension of the teacher's planning and, as indicated in the characteristic itself, it depends directly on observation and diagnosis.

We spoke earlier of the teacher focusing on particular materials by

limiting those he puts out. Now we will see a further extension of this in how the teacher selects which materials he will focus on and how and when he will introduce them.

Barth stresses the connection between diagnosis and observation on the one hand, and the timing and selection of appropriate materials on the other.

> The timing of the introduction of materials is as important to child and adult as the nature of the materials. . . Only keen, first-hand observation can guide the teacher. Thus, one cannot separate the role of the teacher in selecting and supplying materials, from the role of the teacher in observing and diagnosing children's behavior. In order to prescribe and select materials to make available to children tomorrow, we must take advantage of what they are telling us today (Barth, 1970, p. 92).

Not just any material supplied in any fashion will do. But, rather, as Brown and Precious stress, "the day to day requirements of individual children are noticed and provision made for them" (1970, p. 33). Dewey is even more forceful on this issue, "it is not enough that certain materials and methods have proved effective with other individuals at other times. There must be a reason for thinking that they will function in generating an experience that has educative quality with particular individuals at a particular time" (1938, p. 46). What activities are the children engaged in now, or what interests have they shown, that can be meaningfully extended? What material will serve to extend them? How should the material be introduced and when? Will it be enough to just bring the material in (or take it out if it is in the closet, or shift it if it is in another part of the room)? "There are often things a teacher can do to increase

the initial transparency of materials, and thus make it more likely that children will become involved with them" (Rathbone, 1970). This reflects an earlier statement that what the teacher sees of value in a particular experience (here an encounter with a material) is not necessarily what the child will value in it. The teacher is attempting to extend or broaden a child's present activity because he sees value in moving it in a particular educative direction. The child probably will not see this at all, but will value the new extension if it challenges or intrigues. Both criteria, the teacher's and the child's, must be met if significant learning is to take place.

Thus, the gradual modification of the content and arrangement of the classroom is not just to keep up a high level of activity. Rather, it is to extend and intensify activities which have come about through a child's question or interest.

> The further responsibility of the teacher is to choose material that provokes questions, that foster exploration, that suggest new possibilities as a child uses it. The teacher observes the child's use and, as she discusses with him the implications of his questions, she adds material, adapts, extends, offers new alternatives. The teacher. . . goes beyond pre-occupation with "activity." The teacher observes how material is used. The teacher seeks to encourage thinking, and material is therefore selected with the purpose of developing good thinking (Weber, 1971, p. 226).

(P6) The teacher permits and encourages children's use of materials in ways she had not foreseen and helps to move activity into useful channels.

In exploring this characteristic it will be useful to extend Storm's ideas on eolithic craftsmanship to what Eisner has called "expressive objectives." The eolithic craftsman creates something out of another 'thing' which he lights upon. The thing itself does not structure its own use and the craftsman does not bring into his encounter with it any plan (or design). He responds to it. In the back of his mind there are things he needs, or needs to do, and these are recalled by his encounter with a particular object. (Storm relates a hypothetical instance of a Stone Age man happening upon a stone well shaped for a spear. He was not thinking about making a spear, but at that moment of encounter a spear making project was born.)

How is this analogous to the teacher's role vis-a-vis the child in a learning situation? We pointed out previously that Storm's design method of craftsmanship was analogous to behavioral objectives. Both have a built in linearity. The opposite is true to eolithic craftsmanship and to Eisner's expressive objectives.

> Expressive objectives differ considerably from instructional objectives. An expressive objective does not specify the behavior the student is to acquire after having engaged in one or more learning activities. An expressive objective describes an educational encounter: It identifies a situation in which children are to work, a problem with which they are to cope, a task in which they are to engage; but it does not specify what from that encounter, situation, problem, or task

> they are to learn. An expressive objective provides both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore, defer, or focus on issues that are of peculiar interest or import to the inquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive (1969, pp. 15-16).

An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive. Similarly, Storm's eolithic craftsman depends on evocative encounter rather than on prescriptive thought structures or designs. This is how the teacher relates to the child vis-a-vis materials. Eisner speaks of the encounter being an invitation, an invitation to both teacher and child as inquirers. This brings us back to Dearden's "ambiguity of sameness" in which the teacher and child address themselves to the same thing but each sees it differently. Dewey says, "Occasions which are not and cannot be foreseen are bound to arise whenever there is intellectual freedom. They should be utilized. But, there is a decided difference between using them in the development of a continuing line of activity and trusting them to provide the chief material of learning" (1938, p. 79).

The teacher picks up on that part of the educational encounter to which she attaches importance. This is determined by her educational goals and by her diagnosis and evaluation of where a child has been and the direction in which he is presently working. Like the Stone Age man picking up a stone for a spear head, the teacher seizes upon the opportunity to develop, in Dewey's words, "a continuing line of activity." Eisner addresses the question of evaluation. He is concerned, as was Dewey, that we not place all our trust in the unforeseen. He says, "the evaluator's task in this situation is not one of applying a common

standard to the products produced but one of reflecting upon what has been produced in order to reveal its uniqueness and significance" (1969, p. 16).

Neither Storm, Dewey nor Eisner are speaking in terms of either or. We can build both by design and through the use of eoliths. We can seize upon the unforeseen as well as have a thorough knowledge of where a child's activity might lead him. And, instructional (behavioral) objectives have their place alongside expressive objectives. They form what Eisner has called the "rhythm of the curriculum."

We might add, that the tendency in American education today is toward an overabundance of instructional objectives with their emphasis on the known. For this reason we have stressed expressive objectives with a consequent emphasis on elaboration and modification of the unknown, but, good rhythm will require good balance.

(P7) Each child has an individual space for his own personal storage, while the major portion of the classroom space is organized for use by all children.

(P8) Activity areas provide for a variety of potential usage and allow for a range of ability levels.

(P11) Many different activities generally go on simultaneously.

The following classroom plans are provided for the reader to facilitate

visualizing the discussion of the above characteristics.[5]

One of the most striking features of these room arrangements is that there is not a desk for every child. If the teacher is not requiring all children to work at their desk at the same time, if she does not find a need to see them all working independentally and silently, then a desk for every child is unnecessary. She can throw them out, or if tables are not obtainable, she can connect the desks together to make functional working areas. If the children need a space for their own personal storage, some form of cubbies can be provided. These can be made easily and inexpensively from orange crates or tri-wall.

The teacher, in dispensing with the desk creates a great deal of open space. This allows for the development of activity or interest areas. As in Figures 1, 2, and 3, these areas should be rather well defined. This helps the children focus their energies. If activity areas are not well defined there is a tendency for children's focus to dissipate. Within any particular activity area, attention must be given to providing working space appropriate to the activities for which materials have been selected. (Thus, we come back to the

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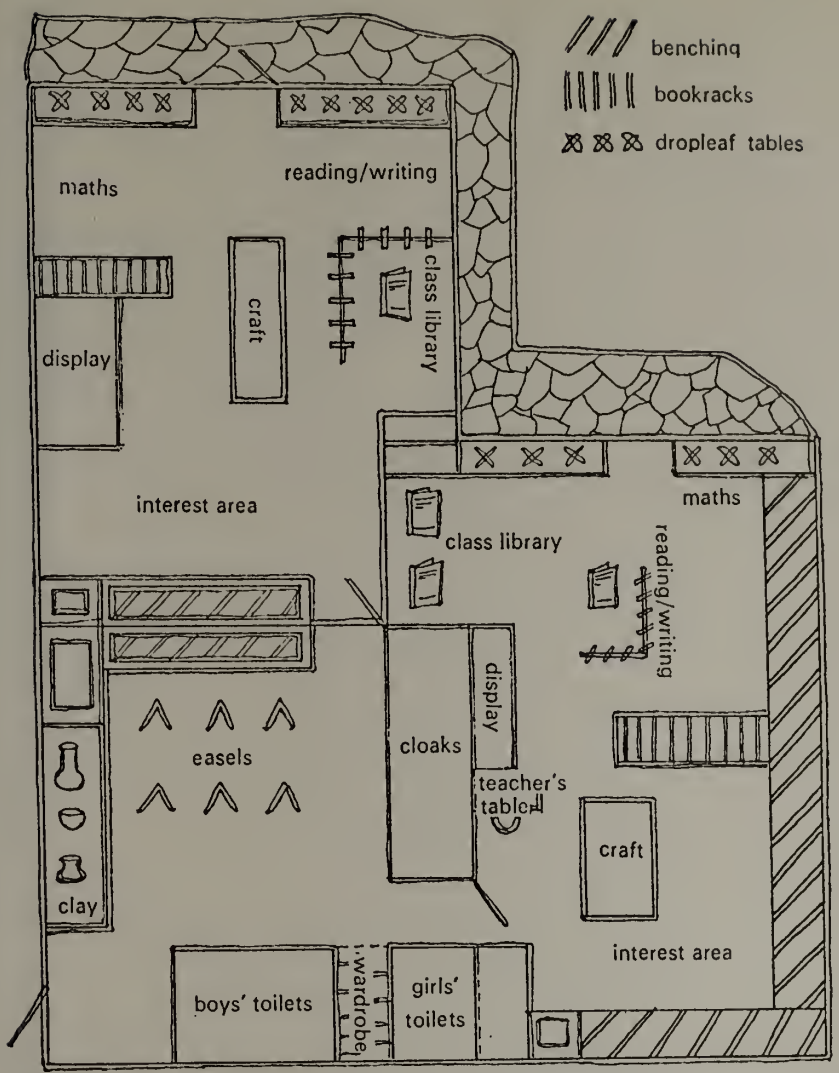
[5]For those particularly interested in this area of teacher competence, we recommend Betsye Sargent's book, The Integrated Day in an American School. It includes an extensive discussion, including diagrams of five major changes made in the room arrangement of her room, of the use of materials, activities, children's participation and teacher comments. It is published by the National Association of Independent Schools, 4 Liberty Square, Boston, Mass., 1970 @ $2.50.

Figure 3



On this and the next page are two arrangements of rooms suitable for infant and junior age children. These are only suggestions and incorporate some of the ideas expressed in the text. It should also be remembered that these arrangements must be flexible and capable of frequent adaption to the prevailing needs of the children.

Figure 4

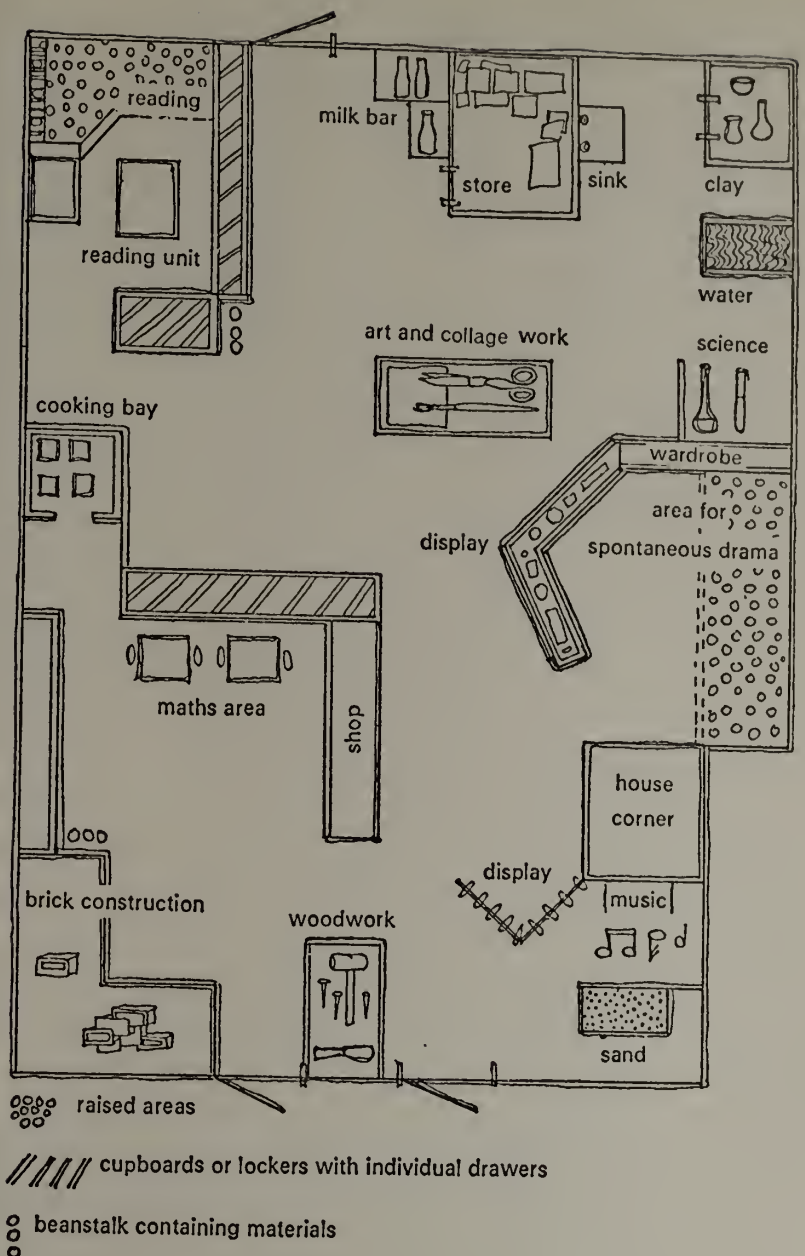
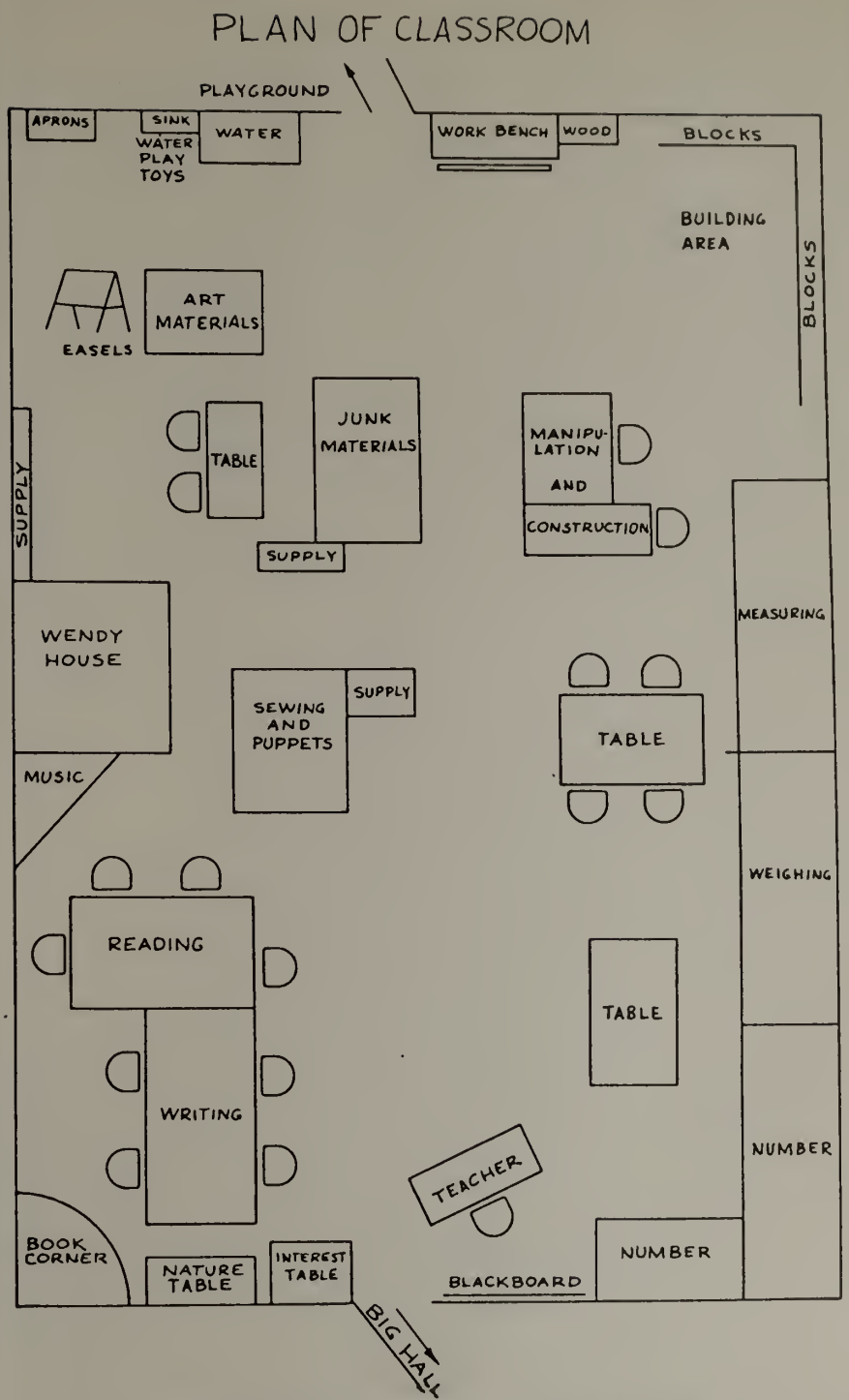


Figure 5



Sketch of classroom plan from a quick on-the-scene drawing.

limitation and selection of materials.) Space, like materials, shifts constantly as the teacher adapts the room to the children's interests. Appropriate working space must include provision for alternative ways of working, so that the room includes areas for quiet reflective reading, maybe a small cubbie for just getting away, a large area for whole group activities and an area for noisy activities such as woodworking, music and blocks. Also, in terms of the room as a whole, thought must be given to the flow of children from one area to another. This flow will be frequent, and thus should not be disruptive of the on-going work in each area.

An activity area should be extremely functional. This need not be to the exclusion of aesthetic quality, for this too is extremely important. In fact, it is often through attention to display that the teacher overcomes what Rathbone spoke of as the initial transparency of materials. However, the activity areas must be functional. Adequate working space has been mentioned. Beyond this, materials appropriate to the area should be, if possible, accessible within the area. Also, materials should be provided so that a range of abilities is served.

One way of achieving multi-level activities is through the use of different kinds of work wcards. One set of cards might be open-ended, allowing for a great deal of initiative and fitting a fairly broad range of levels. Another set,

possibly dealing with the same problems, could be more structured, somewhat after the design of programmed materials.[6]

Setting up activity areas and keeping them responsive to the children's needs and interests is difficult. It requires a lot of time and energy. But, it is essential if different children are to work at different activities independentally and simultaneously. This situation "enables the child to exercise choice in relation to people, raw materials, and selected finished products" (Marsh 1970, p. 103). Here again, some kind of cards may be helpful. These might be work cards, activity cards, invitations, whatever. They can be both commercial and teacher-made, although, only the latter are likely to be responsive to children's interests and needs and thus productive.

Each activity area should have surfaces for display. Excellent use can be made of children's work by displaying it. This will serve to reinforce the child's effort and it will also serve as a stimulus for other children. This is particularly powerful where a child's work involved an open-ended problem or question. In this case, other children may become interested and work at the same problem, since if it is open-ended the first child's answer is not the answer, it is only an answer. After several children have become involved they

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[6] For an excellent discussion of the development of a math lab approach to 5th grade mathematics, including the teacher-made workcards, see: Charbonneau, Manon P., Learning to Think in a Math Lab., National Association of Independent Schools, 4 Liberty Square, Boston, Mass. @ $2.50.

can compare their work. The teacher nurtures this by helping to set the tone of the class work through modeling open-ended questioning behavior in her interactions with the children. Careful display of the children's work also can enhance the aesthetic feel of the room, especially if the art area is an area prized by both teacher and children.

If the activity areas are to remain continually vital and responsive, the teacher must find time during the day to step back and observe the whole, to add perspective to the constant feedback she gets as a participant observer. The room should feel like the people who live there, and it should reflect the fact that people do live there.

> The classroom has varying textures or resources and stimulus areas that can only be adequately described through the use of a chain of terms such as studio, workshop, reference area, experimental area and so on. The introduction of areas (frequently bays) and the control of raw materials becomes a highly significant and selective influence at the command of the teacher. The choices exercised by the teacher in relation to materials and starting-points are a positive influence and lead to a weighting of situations that cause children to experience a sensually appreciated small-scale environment (seeing the wood by means of the trees) and to reflective, feeling response to the world. It is of a different kind to the series of rote items in the instruction-based curriculum of the old elementary school. It reveals a view of people as people and not as instruments of the emerging industrially and commercially based society of the Victorians, or, for that matter, the equivalent technological pressure of our contemporary society (Marsh, 1970, p. 127).

(P9) Children move freely about the room without asking permission.

(P10) Children are free to use other areas of the building and school yard and neighborhood for educational purposes.

(P12) Informal talking between children and exchanging of information and ideas is encouraged as contributing to learning.

(P13) Children help one another.

The importance of children's freedom of movement is spoken to by Dewey.

> An increased measure of freedom of outer movement is a means, not an end. The educational problem is not solved when this aspect of freedom is obtained. . . What end does it serve?. . . without its existence it is practically impossible for a teacher to gain knowledge of the individuals with whom he is concerned (Dewey, 1938, pp. 61-62).

The child's freedom of movement thus relates to his ability to make choices, to choose what he will do, when, and with whom. These choices provide the teacher with insight into the child and how he approaches learning. Furthermore, by establishing a cooperative climate, the teacher guards against abuse of freedom of movement and of freedom to talk. By expecting the children to help one another, the teacher takes an important step toward realizing fruitful cooperative work as a commmon mode of child interaction. But, more is required than good expectations, as important as they are. The expectations require a meaningful context. This context is the activities generated by

children's interest and by the teacher's participative observation, by his intervention and provisioning. Given this context, we understand Weber when she says that the teacher encourages communication as a product of diverse activities, and that 'in such an atmosphere communication is necessary. How else could anyone know what you have done?' (1971, p. 129). And, she goes on to say that it is made very clear that the teacher is "tremendously eager to hear, to read, to support communication" (p. 129 emphasis added).

Cooperative work, with the free movement and talking that it entails, as well as the attitudes of sharing and helping that must accompany it, is a learned behavior. The teacher's expectations are important. Of even greater importance is the teacher's provision for activities which make cooperative work meaningful for the individual child. But, the teacher must bear in mind that cooperative work does not just happen, particularly for the very young, whose perspective tends to be very egocentric. Brearley writes,

> The ability to cooperate depends in part on the opportunities the child has had of cooperating. Children begin to appreciate that other people may have ideas and wishes which are different from and may even conflict with their own, and they begin to understand what these wishes and ideas are through social experiences where ideas are exchanged and where true cooperation can only be achieved by resolving the problems created by opposing ideas and wishes (1970, p. 142).

The teacher must promote the social experience because social growth is so clearly intertwined with intellectual growth. The resolution of egocentric

ideas whether personal or cognitive is facilitated by the social experience. It is worth recalling that we spoke to this same situation when we discussed the characteristic involving the resolution of conflict by the group, not just by the teacher.

(P14) The teacher divides the day into large blocks of time within which children with the help of the teacher, largely determine their own program.

(P15) Children generally work individually and in small groups largely determined by their own choices, and guided by the teacher.

(P19) The teacher promotes a purposeful atmosphere expecting and enabling the children to use their time in general productively and to value their work and learning.

These characteristics are closely related to the previous ones, in that they assume as Dewey says, that the "teacher sees that all human experience is ultimately social: that it involves contact and communication" (1938, p. 38). P14 speaks quite specifically to the need for the teacher to do away with any kind of rigid scheduling. But, in suggesting that the teacher allow the children to largely determine their own program, it is not saying he is abdicating his responsibility. As the characteristic states, he helps the child determine his own program. For the most part this guidance function takes place with individuals or with small groups. The teacher has already structured the child's options in two important ways: the set up of the room and the selective provisioning of materials. She may well have expectations for individuals or

groups in terms of their involvement with certain materials or areas for periods of time ranging from a few minutes to a week or more. He provides whatever structure is needed for a group or for an individual so the child can work purposefully and always with the idea in mind that the child will be continually moving towards a greater degree of autonomy. The structure provided for any one individual will undoubtedly vary depending on the activity, on whether he is working alone or with a group, and, if with a group, then on the make-up of the group. It may vary with the child's proximity to the teacher and may depend upon what area of the room he is working in. Whatever the degree of structure, no matter how tight or loose, how simple or how complex, the teacher always maintains responsibility. In discussing a particular type of independent working committee for intermediate grade children, Thelen makes some interesting observations which are relevant to our discussion.

> After making recommendations to a group, the teacher then withdraws from the group so they can make their own decisions. The teacher, however, does not abdicate responsibility for seeing to it that the decisions of working committees are properly tested against reality by the committees before they have committed themselves to a good deal of effort which can only end in failure (Thelen, 1954, p. 66).

One further observation is of interest because it so clearly draws the line between the teacher guiding children's interests into educationally valuable efforts and the child still remaining free to make decisions. Gardner and Cass write,

> Good teachers have done so much to foster the interests of the children and open up fresh possibilities to them that in some schools there is no need to safeguard particular 'subjects' such as reading, writing and arithmetic by reserving special times for them, since the children can be relied upon to choose them sufficiently and sometimes for longer periods than would have been allocated by a time-table (1965, p. 7).

(P16) The teacher groups children for lessons directed as specific, immediate needs.

(P17) The teacher provides some occasions when the whole group gathers for such activities as story or discussions, to share feelings and ideas and activities and in order to promote a sense of community and belonging to the group.[7]

The teacher forms groups as the need arises based upon his diagnosis of the children's activities and work. The critical idea is that groups are formed for functional reasons and when that particular function ends the group disbands. Groups may be formed around any number of variables, including common interests, friendships, and identified learning needs both cognitive and social.

There is another aspect of the teacher's work with small groups which has important implications for the successful functioning of the class as a whole. Webb discusses the balancing of the teacher's attention.

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[7] The next characteristic in Walberg and Thomas is P18. This characteristic is more a school, or administrative enabling competency than a teacher competency, therefore we will not deal with it here.

> What is very important in operating this systematic teaching of children in small groups within a class is that the work at the painting easels, the experiments in sand and water trays, the block-building and the 'play' in the house-corner are given attention, too. . . The teacher must give time, between teaching the groups, to talk to the painters, challenge the experimenters, stop at the Nature table, suggest something to the builders and call at the house. An enormous part of her work as an educationist is done in these areas (1960, pp. 23-25).

Webb's comments reinforce a point made earlier, namely, that children's activities will never be purposeful, vital learning experiences if they are treated only as enrichment activities by the teacher. One of the clearest ways a teacher communicates what he values is by his methods of paying attention and showing interest. Thus, as important as his work with small groups may be, unless he breaks away, as Webb suggests, to "talk to the painters" then all these activities will be frills rather than the essence of the child's school experience. What a pity this would be, since it is to these activities that the child brings his 'self', and without which the classroom focus must be knowledge rather than learning.

A special group with whom the teacher works in the class - a group of the whole. Many teachers do this at the end of the morning and/or afternoon. This enables them to draw together and often slow the tempo after an intense period of activity. The teacher takes this opportunity to iron out classroom management questions which involve everyone, to have children's work, questions, interests and problems shared, with ideas and suggestions offered by all. The

teacher might share things of his own, or read particularly good stories. Whatever the focus, it must be meaningful - all the participants should be able to find value in it. It is a time when the teacher can help the children to feel how big and diverse their family is, and yet share and have a sense of belonging.

Provisioning for Learning: Summary

The teacher provides a variety and range of materials, including reading matter. The materials are readily accessible to the children although what is actually put out and focused upon by the teacher is a limited, carefully selected portion of the whole. This selection relates directly to his diagnosis of the children's needs and interests. Great care is given to the use of materials in creating a learning environment with a glowing, magnetic quality which will compel the child to pursue his purposes and questions. In his selection of materials, the teacher's purpose is to evoke rather than to prescribe. At the same time, his provisioning attempts to go beyond the mere stimulation of activity to the extension of the child's activities and interests.

The diversity of material includes both commercial and common environmental materials. The teacher adapts commercial materials to particular needs and interests. He scrounges a great profusion of common environmental materials which are inherently more open to a variety of uses than are most commercial materials.

The teacher creates a physical set-up which reflects the diversity and range of levels and styles at which children work. Activity areas are functional

with needed materials readily accessible and with appropriate working space close at hand. The areas are aesthetic, with an ample display area for the children's work - an important source of stimulus for other children. The physical set up allows for the steady flow of children moving about, helping, talking, sharing with one another. The teacher uses this constant interaction and flow, involving a variety of situations, as an important source of diagnostic information. He realizes that cooperative work is a learned behavior and actively promotes its development. On the basis of his diagnosis he works with children in a variety of groupings and with individuals on a variety of bases, so that a complex and variegated structure exists between teacher and children and amongst the children. The teacher flows back and forth between individuals and small groups both independent and directed.

Diagnosis of Learning Events

> (D1) In diagnosis the teacher pays attention not only to the correctness of a child's response or solution, but also to the understanding and reasoning processes which led the child to the particular response or solution.

The teacher understands that process and produce cannot be a dichotomy (Parker and Rubin, 1966, p. 4). To look only at a child's products, dis-associated from the processes he went through to arrive at the product, can not provide the teacher with a useful picture of what and how the child is learning. It is not merely knowledge we are striving for in education but how we use

knowledge, how we make judgements related to knowledge, how we respond to a change in the basis of our knowledge. Does such change overwhelm us, or excite us? Does it produce fear or curiosity? The answers to these questions cannot be found merely by examining a child's products, or in educationese, his outcomes.[8]

In relation to this we previously defined learning as "the development of insight." This definition of learning

> is in direct conflict with the definition of learning as a change in behavior. A change in behavior may indeed come after something has been learned, but the behavior change is the result; it is not the learning itself. . . we need to know what we can possibly do to help a person form a new insight, as well as what to do afterwards to help him test its validity (Dunwell, 1966, p. 3).

The teacher cannot know what to do to help the child form new insights if his basis for diagnosis is only an examination of the child's products. On the other hand, by attending to the understanding and reasoning processes of the child the teacher can hope to further develop these processes.

The teacher's view of his role is fundamental to this helping relationship. Gooding found that effective teachers perceived the teaching task as

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[8]Two related sources are Parker and Rubin's Process as Content, Rand McNally, 1966, and Maccoby and Zellner's Experiments in Primary Education, Harcourt Brace Javanovich, Inc., 1970. The latter includes a good, brief discussion of the cognitive vs. the Skinnerian views of learning.

encouraging process as opposed to achieving goals. "The subject sees as appropriate to his role the encouragement and facilitation of the process of search, discovery and creation" (1964, p. 29). The effective teacher also is "more concerned with the phenomenological experiences of people than with oejctive events and facts" (1964, p. 29). Gooding's findings support Dewey's thesis that "the teacher has sympathetic understanding of individuals as individuals which gives him an idea of what is actually going on in the minds of those who are learning" (1938, p. 39). The next characteristic examines how the teacher finds answers to the questions we have raised above concerning what and how the child is learning.

> (D2) To obtain diagnostic information the teacher takes an involved interest in the specific work or concern of the child at the moment, through attentive, individualized observing and questioning which is immediate and experienced based.

Here again we see the teacher as participant observer. Any other role must be inappropriate since the child's "learning takes place in a total context of immediate action, feeling and perception" (Brearley, 1970, p. 164). The teacher enters into this context and becomes involved in the child's learning - not merely initiating the learning process and then examining the product. There is an assumption here about the kind of learning which is taking place, and thus about the context into which the teacher is entering. The assumption relates back to our thinking about process and content. Parker and Rubin

write that "the crux of the assumed contradiction between content and process lies in the difference between passive and active approaches to learning" (1966, p. 2). By providing the opportunity for active learning the teacher makes possible the obtaining of a different and higher quality diagnosis. Hawkins stresses this,

> When children are being diverse in what they're doing and selective in what they're doing, when the teacher is giving them genuine alternatives as to what they can do, then he is bound to elicit much more knowledge of them from reading the language of their behavior (in Rathbone, 1971, p. 90).

Having looked at the context within which diagnosis takes place, we shall now move to an examination of what is involved in diagnosis itself. To begin with, we can refer back to Resnick's study of integrated day teachers. She found that,

> The most striking feature of (the) data is the high percentage of questions directed by the teacher to the child. Between 45 and 69 per cent of the total number of utterances are questions of one type or another. Of these questions, the vast majority are substantive in nature (1971, p. 4).

Questioning is only part of the teacher's interaction however. Questioning is woven into a cloth whose warp is a combination of sensitive listening and observing. "For verbal interaction to occur, the teacher must be familiar with a child's circumstances, his contexts, and must be able to anticipate, to catch context barely expressed" (Weber, 1971, p. 223). It is as if a very fine tuning was necessary as the teacher enters into each child's involvement, trying to see

with his eyes and hear with his ears. "The child needs an adult who tries to see with what piece of reality he is grappling and what insight he has had" (Weber, 1971, p. 223).

Torrance and Meyers stress this same sensitivity in their book, Creative Learning and Teaching.

> An observer . . . is one who can penetrate the detailed relationships which form a total impression. In the context of the classroom, this would mean that, in order to observe, a teacher should not only see so that he can recognize things, but he should penetrate into the detailed visual relationships of what he sees. Similarly, a teacher should not merely hear, but he should listen to the sounds of the classroom and attempt to understand their characteristics and relationships (Torrance and Meyers, 1970, p. 133).

One further point should be made regarding the teacher as both listener and observer. While not underplaying the importance of being analytical, it must be stressed that the teacher takes care to see and hear a child through to the end of what he has to say or do or show. This is perhaps most crucial in terms of listening, since young children are still developing their verbal ability and the teacher must exercise patience as a child tries to clarify his thoughts. This is doubly important since the child's use of words is frequently very different from the adults.

> (D3) Errors are seen as a valuable part of the learning process because they provide information which the teacher and child can use to further the child's learning.

This characteristic was examined together with characteristic H16 as part of the theme 'humaneness'.

> (D4) In diagnosis the teacher values the child's fantasy as an aid in understanding the child's concerns, interests and motivation.

This is closely related to the previous characteristics in which the teacher was seen to involve himself in the child's process of learning. Weber draws attention to the importance of the teacher understanding the relationship of a child's organizing his experience in representation and image and his over all development. Children's fantasy is perhaps most frequently expressed in their play. Gardner and Cass emphasize that the teacher must "realize afresh what Froebel meant when he wrote of play that it is not 'trivial' but 'highly serious and of deep significance'" (Gardner and Cass, 1965, p. 6).

An enlightening example of how fantasy and play function in school to provide an important medium of communication as well as a source of diagnostic information to the teacher is found in Sargent's book, The Integrated Day in an American School. Discussing her classroom's 'Dramatic Play area' she writes,

> The children were free to explore and imitate what interested them in the world around them. Through role-playing they tried on other people as they would try on a hat. There were many opportunities for clarifying misinformation, offering new pieces of information, entering the play as another aspect of the situation in order to extend their beginnings. There also were many opportunities for incorporating naturally the skills of reading, writing and numbers into their play. The teacher is apt to overlook this

> area, but it, like the blocks, is a place with a wealth of potential for academic and social exploration as well as for gaining valuable information about each child (Sargent, 1970. p. 56).

(D6) Children do not always depend on teacher's judgment, they are also encouraged to diagnose their progress through the materials they are working with.

Children can receive immediate feedback when their learning involves manipulative materials, since inherent in materials is their concrete visual appearance. If something does not fit, it does not fit. If it balances, it balances. The teacher can encourage children to diagnose their own progress through adequate provision of materials. However, there is another aspect to a child's self-evaluation which is a bit more complex. Webb writes, "If they are to be independent beings they must grow beyond appeal to adults all the time, and make their own mistakes" (1970, p. 6). Carl Rogers argues similarly that self-evaluation on the part of the learner is essential to moving from self-initiated learning towards responsible learning (1969, p. 142). The teacher as a model of self-evaluative behavior is important to this movement. Brearley emphasizes the role of teacher as model.

> His (the child's) evaluating. . . leads to valuing. The notion of choice which is thus built into the concept of 'value' is important for two reasons. Firstly, making choices in valuing is an individual and autonomous affair. . . Secondly, evaluating one way of behaving as against another implies that children should be exposed to appropriate models of behavior. . . Teachers inevitably present models of behavior in all their dealings with individual children, with the class as a whole, with their colleague

> and with parents. . . teachers should be conscious of the kinds of models they present for children's learning (1970, pp. 154-155).

A second avenue the teacher may take in fostering self-evaluation in his children is to directly put the task on their shoulders. "To the extent that the adult can remove himself from the role of the corrector of the child's work . . . the child's source of evaluation will become internalized; he will not always be looking to the teacher for rewards, punishment, approval and corraboration" (Barth, 1970, p. 117). By not automatically responding to the child's wish for approbation the teacher can give back to him the initiative for evaluation. He can help him to reflect on his own behavior.

Diagnosis of Learning Events: Summary

A concern for process and not just for product reflects a view of learning as the development of insight and not merely as a change in behavior. This concern for process requires an active participant-observer role in order to obtain diagnostic information. The teacher becomes involved in the child's learning, and thus, teaching and learning become transactional rather than linearly cause and effect. Participant observation involves finely developed questioning, observing and listening skills.

The teacher sees errors as an important source of information for both him and the child and he conveys this so that errors taken on a constructive connotation. They are seen as a vital part of the learning process. The teacher

similarly takes advantage of the child's fantasy as another source of information about the child and his concerns. The teacher is particularly concerned that children develop the capacity to evaluate themselves. He sees this as essential if they are to become autonomous learners.

Evaluation of Diagnostic Information

Evaluation has practical value for both the learner and the teacher. It provides them feedback as to how the child is doing, where he is headed and where he is not headed. The purpose of evaluation is not a final determination of success or failure; in fact the question is not one of success or failure. The question is what and how is a child learning and how can the teacher better facilitate this learning. For evaluation to be of value, it must be of use to the decision-maker, and, as we have explored in some depth, both teacher and child are important decision-makers in the classroom. Thus, evaluation must be useful to both teacher and child.

(E1) The teacher uses her observation of the child's interaction with materials and equipment and other children as well as what he produces as the basis of her evaluation of his learning.

Evaluation takes place in terms of the individual, only if the teacher's focus and concern is with individuals and not the class. As Marshall says so well, "It is so much more to the point of successful education to regard a class as a collection of individuals than to think of the individual as a fraction of the class" (Marshall, 1963, p. 120). The teacher's concern is with a particular

child and his activities. The teacher needs to hold himself back from imposing his values on the child. In evaluating work, he must continually "beware of judging by what (he) thinks the child should do, or what a child should like: the criterion is what the child does do, and what he likes" (Marshall, 1963, p. 108).

This is not to say that the teacher should not bring his values into the classroom. Any attempt to be value-free would violate the teacher's own integrity. But, neither does he need to impose his values. He is sensitive to the child's interests and purposes and seeks to widen his interests and extend his purposes. "Progress is not in the succession of studies (science, literature, etc.) but in the development of new attitudes towards, and new interests in experience" (Dewey, in Dworkin, 1959, p. 27). This, then, is the focus of the teacher's evaluation of the child, and it takes place within his actual involvement in the child's activities, not just afterwards as an examination of the final product. "The teacher considers records of attainment as superficial unless they are related to information on style of work and interests" (Weber, 1971, p. 111).

One of the ways in which the teacher increases the effectiveness of his evaluation of the child is to foresee where children are headed with their interests and be ready to evaluate their efforts in a particular direction. Marsh stresses the importance of some kind of long term evaluation. He says the "teacher must scrutinize the expression resulting from various starting

questions, with the intention of developing a general evaluative framework for this type of investigation" (1970, p. 63 emphasis added). This might be as simple as a checklist, or it might include detailed observations, inclusion of products sampled as a project develops and, for himself, perhaps some way of recording the project's unfolding in curricular terms.

(E2) Standardized grade-level, or age-level "norms" of performance are not used for evaluating children of children's work.

In abandoning standardized grade-level or age-level "norms," the teacher takes on the considerable responsibility of having to know where each child is in his cognitive, social and physical development. (We will look at specific means of doing this under characteristic E4). The teacher must have an idea of the general skill and conceptual areas in which he has expectations for each child; he does not assume that only what is measurable is of value and hence his areas of concern for each child will include the development of values and social attitudes, and various perspectives on how the child works and feels about his own work.

A quite different area of competence is required when the teacher stops using standard measures which involves handling parents' anxieties and frustrations. At least initially many parents are ill at ease without a report card with letters or numbers. A feasible alternative should be developed and time given to helping parents not only to understand the alternative but the reasons for it.

(E3) Evaluation of a child's school experience is not accomplished by looking only at data collected in a single situation or series of experiences: that is, evaluation of the effect of a child's school exoerience, covers a long range of time, more than a year.

This is essentially a principal competency though dependent upon certain types of teacher kept records which will be dealt with below. It is interesting to note, however, the rational behind this characteristics. It is elaborated by Dewey in "The Science of Education."

> A child's individuality cannot be found in what he does or in what he consciously likes at a given moment; it can be found only in the connected course of his actions. Consciousness of desire and purpose can be genuinely attained only toward the close of some fairly prolonged sequence of activities (in Dworkin, 1959, p. 121).

(E4) The teacher's record keeping consists of writing and compiling individual notes and progress reports chronicling the child's cognitive, emotional and physical development.

(E5) The teacher keeps a collection of each child's work and makes use of it for her own evaluation of the child and to encourage his self-evaluation.

(E6) The teacher uses evaluation to provide information she will use in seeking better ways of encouraging and providing for children's development; i.e., she uses evaluation of the children's work and of the usefulness of materials, arrangements, etc., to guide not only her interacting with children but also her provisioning of the classroom environment.

The teacher needs to know where each child is in each area, for this knowledge informs both the teacher's provisioning of the learning environment, and his interventions in children's learning activities. Particularly in math and reading, his records must be kept daily. Only in this way can he suitably provide for individual needs on a daily basis. We can examine some of the various means of record-keeping which might be employed by an integrated day teacher in order to see how he manages to keep up with each child's involvement. It bears repeating that whatever system of records is employed by the teacher, it must be workable for him, not cumbersome nor disruptive to his routines. The usefulness of a record is "in direct proportion to the enthusiasm with which the teacher maintains it" (Rance, p. 46). Record-keeping can be overdone!

One form of record-keeping is suggested in characteristic E5. The teacher keeps a collection of each child's work and makes use of it. There is hardly any point in making a collection of children's work if it is not to be used. It will only take up valuable space. In fact, even when it is used valuably, consideration must be given to some kind of selectivity. Keeping all of the children's work takes excessive space and soon accumulates to the point where it discourages use. Selection of work that the teacher and/or child feels is significant is necessary. If both teacher and child periodically review this collection of work, they will each gain invaluable insight into the child's progress and direction.

A selective collection of each child's work is only one of many kinds of records. An overview of the kinds of record-keeping which might be useful is suggested in an unpublished monograph on "Record keeping for the open classroom" developed by The Prospect School, North Bennington, Vermont.

> The following examples of record-keeping procedures are meant to illustrate types and varieties of record-keeping that are potentially useful for the open classroom. They are not meant to be a system of records, since the needs for individual teachers and schools will vary. The record formats illustrated are as follows:
>
> Records to determine and represent the situation of the group (sociograms)
> Records to represent the flow of activities in the open classroom (flow charts)
> Records to represent the evolution of a curriculum in the open classroom (curriculum trees)
> Plans for scheduling 'change' to a more open learning environment
> Records of each child's progress and activities: weekly and monthly
> Daily records for math and reading and writing
> Collecting children's work
> Parents' Report
> Records for a child transferring to a new school
> Anecdotal Records

Records such as these help the teacher to focus on specific dimensions of a child's learning or of the environment. Some records might be used periodically, monthly or quarterly, or when specifically needed. Sociograms or records showing the flow of activity or the evolution of a curriculum or a proposed change might be used eitherperiodically or irregularly. Some of these record types might be developed cooperatively by several teachers or by a

whole staff. Such cooperative designing of records can help the teacher to consider scope and sequence of the children's activities in general and is likely to highlight the fact that there are many ways of examining curriculum, instruction, and children's learning and of keeping records of the examination. It may be useful to consider records from a different perspective including the various forms of record keeping on the Prospect School list as well as, say, student kept records. Here we will consider three types of records: anecdotal, check-lists, and student kept records.

Anecdotal records are perhaps the most common form of record kept by integrated day teachers. The following guidelines from EDC to its Follow Through teachers provides not only an overview of how to keep anecdotal records but implication for their use (EDC mimeograph).

> Teachers concerned with the total growth of their children have the opportunity, indeed the responsibility to know them as individuals, to understand their strengths and weaknesses, and to maintain suitable records so that these insights can be communicated to parents, school administrators, and to other teachers.
>
> As a way of finding out about individual children, day to day observation by the sensitive teacher is far superior to formal testing. While testing may be required by certain schools, and is useful in special circumstances, we strongly recommend that each teacher in the EDC Follow Through program assume the responsibility of keeping an anecdotal record on each child in her class.
>
> It is impossible to provide a short course in what to look for and what to write down: the best way to learn how to observe is by observing. By keeping anecdotal

records the teacher will find that she herself becomes more aware of her children, and perhaps for the first time she will feel that she really knows them.

Here are several guidelines for record-keeping.

1. Use a loose leaf file with separate sheets for each ehild. Give statistical information first: name, address, date of birth, date of admission to school, etc., Include any information about home background, physical health, ete., and mention the source of your information.

2. Leave small pads and pencils around the room so that you can easily jot down important events that may arise during the day.

3. Never make a general statement without providing specifie instances. "John worked with the blocks today" doesn't tell you very mueh. For example: Did he work alone? For how long? Did he seareh for other materials? Did he need your help? Did any extensions arise from his work? These questions would lead to more meaningful observations. You will think of many more for yourself.

4. Report on the way the child reacts with other children and with adults.

5. Make a clear distinction between observation and inferenee. Inelude your own speeulations about the child, but make it clear that this is what they are. You may often draw several inferences from one observation.

6. Avoid generalizations about a child's intelligence or progress. They are completely meaningless, e,g., "A good average ehild," or "Continues to make good progress."

7. It is not neeessary to report on every child every day, or even every week. Try to be selective. Pick out events that seems to you significant.

In a follow up to sharing the above guidelines, several of the EDC teaehers responded with other suggestions and ideas. Some of these were :

specific suggestions about alternate ways to keep anecdotal records, use of a tape recorder in a specific area or areas, taking ten minutes off occasionally to get an overview - to be truly an observer and anecdotal records on specific areas of the room (EDC mimeographed).

Brown and Precious point out that "the teacher may feel that a particular activity is not used and she will try to find the reason, perhaps withdraw some of the apparatus or provide some more attractive materials" (1970, p. 33). Records such as those suggested above by EDC teachers increase the teacher's chances of realizing that something is not working well or, on the other hand, is working very well. In either case teacher and children will both benefit if the teacher knows why a particular activity has or has not worked.

Checklists provide a very different function. If well designed, they can provide a very quick way of grossly recording whether or not something occurred and when. It bears repeating that it is always useful to include the date on any recording. Checklists can serve a range of functions from indicating involvement in an activity center to type of work in a particular area, to specific activities with a particular material. Checklists can indicate a child's work with concepts in a particular area of the curriculum or activities involving specific skills. Further, checklists often can be maintained by children, which brings us to our third type of record keeping - child kept records. A large chart in the math area for example might list the materials and activities of that area horizontally with each child's name listed vertically. The children

can place the date in the appropriate box after being involved in that area. Each child might keep lists of books he has read, or a dictionary of words and/or sounds he has needed help on. Books children develop of selection of their work are an invaluable record. These might include several areas of work, or a specific focus such as numbers or stories, and so on.

Thus, there is a large variety of records teachers and children might keep. Most important, whatever type record is kept, is that it be used, that it serve the teacher in seeking better ways of encouraging and providing for children's development.

Evaluation of Diagnostic Information: Summary

Effective evaluation is closely related to the clarity of the teacher's goals. This is true both in terms of his evaluation of a child's growth as well as of his evaluation of the effectiveness of his provisioning or instruction. The teacher's evaluative efforts reflect his view of learning as developmental and are therefore long-term in nature. Central to this effort are a variety of record-keeping devices which enable the teacher to capture significant events and moments in the child's school experience.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter we summarize our efforts to identify teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach. We also suggest implications this work has for further research and for practitioners in the field.

Summary

We have focused upon the teacher working in an integrated day approach. This has not involved portraying our ideal teacher. Rather, we have attempted to focus upon those teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day situation. In Chapter II we developed a broad definition of competency which would allow us to encompass the complexity and idiosyncracy which characterize this approach. This definition includes not only overt behaviors but also attitudes and self-perceptions and the mixture of these components. Having established a way of looking at the teacher, we then proceeded to analyze several recent American studies of open education (integrated day). In particular, five studies, undertaken in the last several years, were seen to have made a significant start toward a clear and useful conceptualization of the integrated day. Our study builds directly upon these earlier efforts: we employ two of them quite substantively. Appendix "D" of Walberg and Thomas' study, Open Education:

Toward an Operational Definition, provided us with a framework for identifying teacher competencies in seven specific areas. Bussis and Chittenden's report, "Analysis of an Approach to Open Education," played a less obvious, but no less significant role. Their conceptualization of open education established the teacher and child as mutually active contributors to the learning environment, and thus moved beyond the common view of classrooms as being either teacher-centered or child-centered. They point out that the literature on open education in England reflects this view, in that it is very child-centered. This is the case even though the practice of open education is, as Bussis and Chittenden argue, both teacher and child centered. Our analysis of American studies of open education reveals that a similar phenomena exists in this country. One result of this disparity between practice and conceptualization is a paucity of attention to what an integrated day teacher is and does. It is hoped that this dissertation, by focusing on teacher competencies central to working in an integrated day approach, helps to redress this imbalance.

In Chapter II we also examined the work of Combs, et al., a series of studies focusing on the nature of the helping professions from a perceptual psychological point of view. We were particularly interested in the "self-as instrument" concept developed by Combs and employed by C. T. Gooding in his study of the "Characteristic Perceptual Organizations of Effective Teachers." In examining this body of research, we found a useful link between it and three of the themes we would be employing from Walberg and Thomas, namely, self-perception, humaneness, and seeking.

Chapter III is a broad and explicit statement of teacher competence in seven areas central to working in an integrated day approach: self-perception of teacher; seeking opportunity to promote growth; humaneness - respect, openness and warmth; instruction - guidance and extension of learning; provisioning for learning; diagnosis of learning events; and evaluation of diagnostic information.

Implications for Further Research

In this section we discuss several areas which require further study.

There is an overriding need for a clear statement of the goals of the integrated day approach to elementary education. A start has been made in this direction both by Barth and by Walberg and Thomas in their identification of assumptions underlying open education. Goals are implicit in many of these assumptions. For example, Walberg and Thomas identify two assumptions about the child as decision maker.

> Children are capable, with varying degrees of support, of making intelligent decisions in significant areas of their own learning, (A. 3).
>
> Children have the right to make important decisions regarding their own educational experience, (A. 10). (Walberg and Thomas, 1971, D-10, 11)

Similarly, Barth identifies the following assumptions:

> Children have both the competence and the right to make significant decisions concerning their own learning, (Assumption 7).
>
> Confidence in self is highly related to capacity for learning and for making important choices affecting one's learning, (Assumption 4). (See Appendix A)

One goal implicit in these assumptions is that the child will make significant decisions regarding his own learning, or stated differently, that the child will develop autonomy as a learner. Goals are implicit in many of the assumptions. But, an explicit and precise statement of goals would greatly facilitate further research and would complement this study. It would provide a much needed "measuring stick" against which such crucial variables as parent expectations, teacher and pupil performance and teacher training efforts can be evaluated. Of course each institution, each staff, would have to adapt such a statement of goals to conform to the local situation. This adaption could be part of the process of moving from a statement of goals to a statement of objectives.[1]

The development of a clearly stated set of goals would also facilitate work in several other specific areas to which we will now address ourselves. From our own examination of seven areas of teacher competence, it is clear that further work of a highly focused nature is needed in the following areas: teacher competencies relating to the subject areas - art, reading-language arts, math, science, social studies, music, etc.; classroom management competencies particularly with regard to discipline, structuring individual children's learning situations, and more specifically, dealing with emotionally

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[1]We consider goal setting as a process to be as important, if not more so, than a statement of goal as a product. In fact, we would argue that goal setting can only be meaningful if it is part of an on-going process. Thus, teachers most profitably get involved in goal setting as a conscious delimiting effort not before they try to move toward an integrated day approach, but after they have begun and have already come up against some of the difficulties involved.

disturbed children in an integrated day environment; diagnostic competencies and the development of techniques and instruments; and, evaluation competencies which, of course relates directly to our earlier focus on goals. Now we will look briefly at each of these areas.

The literature is not totally void of emphasis on the subject matter areas, but, as with the integrated day literature in general, the work focusing on subject matter areas does not deal specifically nor extensively enough with the teacher. Vincent Rogers and Molly Brearley's works deal with both reading and math, as well as the other subject areas. There is, in fact, a great deal of material available in England from the Nuffield Project and from the School's Council on Math. But these are not enough, particularly outside the area of math. It would be of value if someone were to approach the literature dealing with subject matter areas in a manner similar to our own approach to the seven themes.

The second area mentioned above was classroom management. This is a crucial aspect of the teacher's work and yet there is a poverty of material on what a teacher does to bring about specific areas of development. Anna Markus, a doctoral student at the University of Massachusetts is developing teacher competencies related to the development of self-esteem in pupils, and Michael Cussen, of the same institution, is examining the nature and extent of decision-making on the part of children and teachers in integrated day classrooms. Many more such efforts are needed. The teacher continually creates a variety of

structures within which children work. These structures include several variables: physical space, time, groupings, type of activities, small groups and large groups. We have dealt with these variables to varying degrees in our present work, but it would be useful to have work undertaken which focuses only on the area of structure.

The third area mentioned above was diagnosis. We dealt with this ourselves in the theme "Diagnosis of Learning Events." The need in this area is for the development of specific diagnostic techniques and instruments. Some work, already begun in this area, is worthy of mention. Bussis and Chittenden, of Education Testing Service, whose report, "Analysis of An Approach to Open Education," was employed extenstively in Chapters II and III of this study, are currently developing diagnostic procedures for classroom teachers to use in ascertaining children's growth in several areas of cognitive development. Similar work is being field tested by the Nuffield Project in England as part of their Science 5-13 Project. The Nuffield Project had made an initial effort in this area with its earlier work in mathematics. It developed "checkups" but teachers in England found these too cumbersome. The project's more recent efforts, though still being field tested, appear to be more workable. Similarly, Bussis and Chittenden are striving to develop games and other techniques which will allow the teacher to diagnose without distorting the normal classroom routine. Both efforts will facilitate teachers' direct use of Piaget's developmental psychology in their work with children. Another aspect of diagnosis involves

observation, listening and questioning skills. Although we dealt with each of these, there is a definite need for further work in each of these areas. This work should include further conceptualization of competencies and how they are applied to specific situations. This might well be part of an analysis of several 'good' integrated day teachers. There is also a need for the development of training programs to develop competencies in listening, observing and questioning. (Some work has been done in this area by Professor Allen Ivey of the University of Massachusetts.)

The final area for needed research mentioned above was evaluation, which is closely related to the need for clear and precise goal statements. Evaluation methodologies and instruments are needed for many aspects of open education, including assessment of pupil growth, evaluation of teacher performance, evaluation of teacher training programs, and also assessment of the impact of support services. One specific effort, currently in progress, is again worthy of note. Besides their above work, Bussis and Chittenden are also involved in assessing the impact of several open education advisories, They are attempting to examine the effectiveness of these advisories in facilitating the development of open classrooms in terms of the perceptions of the participating teachers. This study of teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of open education advisories is related to a larger problem demanding similar attention: the whole question of how to move toward an integrated day approach, how to implement change in this specific direction? Contributions might come from several

approaches. One such approach would be case studies of on-going efforts to move in this direction. One such study exists in Barth's dissertation which included a case study. However, several more are needed in order that generalizations might emerge which will be helpful to a variety of teachers in a variety of situations. Other studies might attempt to identify specific change strategies which seem particularly consonant with the integrated day philosophy. Perhaps of greatest value would be an analysis of the specific areas of change involved in moving from a traditional to an integrated day approach. The Bussis and Chittenden paradigm (see Chapter II) might be a starting point for such a study. Certainly such an analysis would need to encompass attitudes and perceptions as well as knowledge and skills. Such a study might also include the identification of specific steps which can be taken in moving away from a traditional and toward an integrated day approach. For example, some teachers begin by setting aside one period a day as an activity period. Others move ahead in a specific subject area, while still others prefer the 'jumping in,' 'whole hog' approach rather than 'toe dipping.'[2]

A further recommendation grows out of our own attempt to relate the research of Combs, et al., particularly the concept of the "self-as-instrument" to three areas of teacher competence, namely, humaneness, self-perception, and seeking. Our efforts suggest that not only is the "self-as-instrument" con-

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[2]A strong argument is made for a gradual approach in a recent article by Elwyn S. Richardson, "Some Problems in Developing an 'open-education' Classroom," Outlook, Spring, 1972, pp. 14-19.

cept compatible with these areas of teacher competence, but it greatly strengthens the statement of competence in each area. Therefore, we suggest that a study similar to Gooding's dissertation on the characteristic perceptual organizations of effective teachers be made of integrated day teachers. This would reinforce the validity of both Gooding's work and our own. We think the "self-as-instrument" concept is an important tool for further conceptualization of the integrated day approach.

Finally, we suggest that three direct extensions of this study are called for. An observational study could be undertaken to empirically determine the presence or absence in integrated day classrooms of the identified teacher competencies. (Evans' teacher interview and classroom observation rating scale could be used to select the classrooms.) A second, and parallel study might attempt to ascertain teachers' perceptions of the presence or absence as well as the relative significance or insignificance of the identified competencies. This would provide teacher educators with data regarding teachers' perceptions of the relative importance of the various teacher competencies. The third extension would follow directly upon the first. An effort might be made to determine what pupil outcomes are present where the above identified teacher competencies are found. This would, of course, only establish a correlation between teacher competency and specific pupil outcomes. It would not establish cause and effect relationships. The pupil outcomes could be examined in light of an explicit statement of goals for integrated day classrooms, thus making a beginning toward

assessing the extend to which these goals are being met.

Implications for Practitioners in the Field

Our concern now focuses quite narrowly on the problem of implementation. Based upon our own research, and particularly those studies which have examined efforts to move in the direction of the integrated day, and based also upon actual experience as teacher, advisor and consultant, we share a concern with other open educators that we must 'undermine' the tendency toward a band wagon effect.[3] We can do this in at least two ways. The first has been outlined above. That is, we must undertake extensive research, both in specific areas requiring clearer conceptualization and in broader studies clarifying where we have been, where we are now, and where we are going. This will provide us with a clearer picture of what it is we are trying to do and some measure of our progress.

The other thrust involves the problem of implementation in our schools. John Goodlad, in an extensive study of educational innovation in this country, Behind the Classroom Door, found that the expenditure of millions of dollars and years of work had come to virtually nothing. This, he concluded, was largely a result of the phenomena epitomized by 'teacher-proof' materials. The phenomena of attempting to force and direct change from a locus external to the classroom is the antithesis of the integrated day approach. As we strongly argue in Chapters II and III, the teacher, alongside the child, is at the very heart of the learning

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[3]See for example, Marilyn Hapgood, "The Open Classroom: Protect It from Its Friends," Saturday Review, September 18, 1971, pp. 66-93.

situation; to effect the situation we must effect the teacher.

In a discussion of the role of 'lab' schools, (Goodlad, 1971), Goodlad argues vehemently for the development of 'model' schools; by model he means exemplary. He suggests that our priority need is for examples of good educational practices, so that teachers can see other teachers actually working with children in a specific way. His argument is that the catalyst for change in education is not better curriculum packages or instructional techniques, but better teachers whom others can see. We would argue that the need for exemplary classroom includes, but must go beyond the 'lab' school. Integrated day educators must commit themselves to developing exemplary classrooms and schools. If the integrated day movement is not to wither, as did the progressive movement, its development at this time must be in terms of quality of teaching and learning not in numbers of classrooms. In the end, only teachers can make this difference.

As teachers, supervisors and teacher educators consider the integrated day approach it is crucial that they examine the teacher competencies which are central to this approach. Such examination would constitute an important step in creating preservice or inservice training programs capable of fostering the development of these competencies. The competencies identified in Chapter III should provide a useful starting point. A teacher's examination of our statement of teacher competencies should help him to identify his own competencies and weaknesses relative to moving toward an integrated day approach. Supervisors

or educators sharing in this examination can then build upon areas of competence and work to strengthen areas of weakness. Fellow teachers can and should serve a similar function as we stressed in our theme 'Seeking to Promote Growth'. This seeking must not be limited to helping the children in one's class, as fundamental as this is. It must extend further to fostering growth among colleagues.

Closely related to teachers' efforts to implement an integrated day approach is the need for complementary administrative, leadership, and advisory comptencies. Our examination of the integrated day teacher highlighted humaneness, characterized by warmth, respect and openness as a crucial area of teacher competence. The teacher must be able to create an open, responsive environment. We also established that idiosyncracy characterizes the integrated day teacher's efforts. What role does a principal and/or advisor play? and what competencies are involved in establishing a staff environment conducive and supportive of the teacher creating an open environment in her own idiosyncratic way?[4]

In answer to the question, we might suggest, however briefly, some important ingredients of the principal's or advisor's role. In discussing teacher

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[4]Barth, and Bussis and Chittenden, are currently exploring this area. Barth, in a soon to be published book, examines the role of the principal. Bussis and Chittenden, in the work mentioned above, have developed an interview schedule and are studying teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of supportive advisors in three separate open education advisories.

competencies we emphasized the teacher's ability to establish an atmosphere of openness and trust in which the teacher responds to children's mistakes in such a way as to have the errors seen as building blocks, rather than as cause for reprimand or scorn. Learning, particuarly the learning of anything difficult, necessarily involves making mistakes. And just as the teacher must provide a climate which enables the child to benefit from his mistakes, so principals and advisors must establish a school atmosphere which enables teachers to grow and learn from their mistakes. Specifically this means providing a cushion for the teacher from undue pressures from above and from without, from the central office and from parents. Initial efforts by the teacher to move toward an integrated day approach are bound to involve ups and downs. When the teacher is struggling to find his own way is no time for him to have to deal with others outside the school.

The principal's and advisor's roles also require providing feedback to the teacher, not judgmentally, but supportively, not so much for the administrations evaluation of the teacher, but more for the teacher's evaluation of himself. Finally, this role involves making available a variety of resources both human and material, particularly as the teacher's initial enthusiasm begins to thin under the strain of long hours and extra effort. Given the need for such close support principals and advisors, great advantage is gained by designing in-service programs which include teachers and principals (and advisors) as participants. This should increase the openness of communication between them,

develop an understanding for the principal's of where the teacher is heading and the difficulties involved in getting there, and heighten the teacher's appreciation of the problems involved for the administration in helping to bring about change.

Finally, we would like to advance a specific recommendation concerning preservice education.

The self-as-instrument concept discussed above has a potentially useful application to preservice education. Gooding, basing his study on the self-as-instrument concept, identified characteristic perceptual organization of effective teachers. This characteristic way of looking at oneself, at others and at the teaching task could serve as part of the selection criteria for selecting students into a preservice program. Furthermore, if a study is undertaken to determine whether or not Gooding's Characteristic Perceptual Organization of Effective Teachers is congruent with the characteristic perceptual organization of integrated day teachers, (as suggested above) this would enhance their usefulness as a selection criteria for an integrated day preservice program. We further urge that all aspects of teacher competence, including self-perception, should concern the efforts of preservice educators. In relation to this, both Combs (1965) and Rogers (1969) emphasize the impact that the relationship between faculty and undergraduates can have in developing self-perceptions, including perceptions of others and perceptions of the teaching task, which will enable the undergraduate to become an effective helper. (This obviously is related to Bandura's concept of modeling behavior and thus is analogous to the

way we described the teacher-child relationship above.) The identified teacher competencies, in seven areas central to working in an integrated day approach, as delineated in Chapter III, should provide an effective statment of goals for teacher education committed to preparing either preservice or inservice teachers to work in the integrated day approach.

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APPENDIX

OPEN EDUCATION: ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LEARNING AND KNOWLEDGE

(From Open Education: Assumptions and Rationale, Qualifying Paper by Roland S. Barth, Harvard Graduate School of Education, April 1968).

I. Assumptions about Children's Learning

Motivation

Assumption 1: Children are innately curious and display exploratory behavior quite independent of adult intervention.

Assumption 2: Exploratory behavior is self-perpetuating.

Conditions for Learning

Assumption 3: The child will display natural exploratory behavior if he is not threatened.

Assumption 4: Confidence in self is highly related to capacity for learning and for making important choices affecting one's learning.

Assumption 5: Active exploration in a rich environment, offering a wide array of manipulative materials will facilitate children's learning.

Assumption 6: Play is not distinguished from work as the predominant mode of learning in early childhood.

Assumption 7: Children have both the competence and the right to make significant decisions concerning their own learning.

Assumption 8: Children will be likely to learn if they are given considerable choice in the selection of the materials they wish to work with and in the selection of the questions they wish to pursue with respect to those materials.

Assumption 9: Given the opportunity, children will choose to engage in activities which will be of high interest to them.

Social Learning

Assumption 10: When more than one child is interested in exploring the same problem or the same materials they will often choose to collaborate in some way.

Assumption 11: When a child learns something which is important to him he will wish to share it with others.

Intellectual Development

Assumption 12: Concept formation proceeds very slowly.

Assumption 13: Children learn and develop intellectually not only at their own rate, but in their own style.

Assumption 14: Children pass through similar stages of intellectual development. . . each in his own way, and at his own rate and in his own time.

Assumption 15: Intellectual growth and development takes place through a sequence of concrete experiences followed by abstractions.

Assumption 16: Verbal abstractions should follow direct experience with objects and ideas, not precede them or substitute for them.

Evaluation

Assumption 17: The preferred source of verification for a child's solution to a problem comes through the materials he is working with.

Assumption 18: Errors are necessarily a part of the learning process; they are to be expected and even desired for they contain information essential for further learning.

Assumption 19: Those qualities of a person's learning which can be carefully measured are not necessarily the most important.

Assumption 20: Objective measures of performance may have a negative effect upon learning.

Assumption 21: If an individual is involved in and having fun with an activity, learning is taking place. Evidence of this learning is best assessed intuitively, by direct observation.

Assumption 22: The best way of evaluating the effect of the school experience on the child is to observe him over a long period of time.

Assumption 23: The best measure of a child's work is his work.

II. Assumptions about Knowledge

Assumption 24: The quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing; knowledge is a means of education not its end. The final test of an education is what a man is not what he knows.

Assumption 25: Knowledge is a function of one's personal integration of experience and therefore does not fall into neatly separate categories or "disciplines."

Assumption 26: The structure of knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic, and a function of the synthesis of each individual's experience with the world.

Assumption 27: It is questionable whether there is a minimum body of knowledge which is essential for everyone to know.

Assumption 28: It is possible, even likely, that an individual may learn and possess knowledge of a phenomenon and yet be unable to display it publicly. Knowledge resides with the knower not in its public expression.